

The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXVIII NUMBER 4

Continuing The Historical Outlook

APRIL, 1947

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The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXVIII, NUMBER 4

APRIL, 1947

"I Belong to the United Nations"

ROBERT A. MALLON

San Francisco, California

One of the purposes expressed in the Charter of the United Nations is that the organization is "to be a center for harmonizing the actions of nations in the attainment of (these) common ends." This is a noble and high ideal, worthy of such a charter. At the time set forth, it was a mere hope with the thought, perhaps, that in some way the future would reveal the possibilities of such an aspiration expressed in tangible demonstration.

Some time has elapsed since this purpose was expressed. Can we look back and say that events have proved the feasibility of such hope? I think we can. Can we look ahead and see the full development of such an ideal? I am not sure that we can unless this ideal, this hope of humanity, can be brought closer to the peoples of the world.

Many problems have been presented for discussion. Subjects of vital national concern have been brought up for open debate. Even today, vital questions affecting national sovereignty, or national prestige, are being thought about in an assembled group. Not so long ago it would have been condemned as a step toward national suicide even to consider such topics; for example, questions of troop placements and open inspection of industry and armaments in each member nation. Such progress is more than encouraging; it is essential to a sound international understanding.

Yet, I feel that the most important factor

toward the realization of "harmonizing the actions of nations" is being neglected. It is the necessity for a coordinated effort of publicity and daily discussion in the world press. It is only by a concerted effort of reliable news' sources, expressed in the press of the world, that the basic issues of world organization can be brought close to the peoples concerned. This means the peoples of all countries, whether or not they may at present be members of the United Nations. This is what may be termed an "educational" process. Such a term in the past has meant a process of forcing improvement on people against their wishes. It is looked upon as a thing to be condoned, but completed as fast as possible. A better term, therefore, would probably be "a process of self-evaluation of today's world."

This sounds rather complicated, I suppose; yet it is only the daily press that can bring about such a situation. The individual must be made to understand that he is part of the world scheme. He is not remote, nor isolated, nor unimportant. His activity may be limited, his scope confined, yet when multiplied by millions like him, he is the world; he is the "common man" about whom so much has been written and said. What can help him apprehend this better than an active press which states in language he can understand just what is going on at these discussions of the United Nations?

Most people are busy with their daily activi-

ties—their means of making a living, of meeting their own personal problems, of competing with others for the common necessities of life. To attempt to interest a person in something beyond his immediate sense of existence is a huge task. Yet this barrier must be eliminated if the United Nations is to function as an efficient force for world peace and understanding. Delegates can only make commitments and discuss problems to the extent of the power authorized by their respective countries. The power of these countries really rests in the hands of the people comprising them, at least in those countries following the philosophy of democracy.

If the people "at home" really comprehend what is transpiring at the meetings attended by their delegates, they will be interested in finding out how their country is being treated. Do their delegates receive courteous treatment? Are their questions answered satisfactorily? Are concessions made to their government? Certainly, these matters are personal to the peoples of all countries and involve the intangible factor of prestige. Because individual prestige is highly important, so is national prestige. It is closely tied up with the success factor, individually and nationally.

The world press is in a position to handle these matters better than any other group. News and publicity are their business. They employ qualified men who know their fields and cover them by being in a position to secure information open to no other group of private individuals. For a person "at home"—to read of the success and activity of his delegates is to create a feeling of personal achievement vicariously, of course, but nevertheless leading to more interest in international affairs. This is the beginning of making an "internationalist" out of an extremely nationalistic individual. The barriers of prejudice and ignorance are beginning to give way. Progress is slow, results intangible; yet how else can individuals throughout the world come to feel the United Nations is important to them? I can think of no other way.

I notice a slackening of interest on the part of the press itself. Today, it is true, some notice is given to general events or news items of decisions arrived at by more or less unanimous approval. Yet, the delicate questions involving

the very essence of international understanding are glossed over, or not mentioned at all. Such problems as China, Spain, Palestine, Manchuria, the vital points to be discussed, are more or less ignored. This is done in the name of keeping harmony on the "major" issues. What is the difference between a "major" and a "minor" issue? Apparently, it is the difference between a "large" and a "small" nation.

I recognize that harmony must exist among the powerful nations if there is to be world peace. Yet the very fact that we have some problems being ignored, leaves the larger powers free to create situations favorable to a nationalist point of view in territory of their own choosing. The question of "buffer" or "satellite" states is not new. After the last war it was the basis of friction and, because the issue was not squarely and honestly faced, it was one of the indirect causes of the world conflict recently ended.

No individual can respect another person who talks about an ideal situation and yet actually takes steps not in accord with his preachings. The same can be said of nations. No large nation can respect another nation which preaches world peace and cooperation and yet is allowed to take steps leading to assimilation of territory through "satellite" states. If mutual understanding and respect among large nations is lacking, then there must be much more distrust among smaller nations. How can it be otherwise?

I think stress should be placed uniformly on problems of all nations. Too much importance is still given to the degree of power which a nation possesses. This policy would give self-respect to a smaller power and would insure more sincerity on the part of a large nation. Also, it would eliminate the idea of "major" and "minor" disturbances and would treat any disturbance as a potential threat to world security, worthy of mutual consideration by the United Nations. If this fact is not honestly faced, I see no hope for an efficient United Nations.

Again, I feel that the united efforts of the world press in their daily activities can alone satisfactorily supply the knowledge and the facts necessary to make the peoples of the world feel they are tied up with the success or failure of this world organization. Only

when this point is reached, only when the individual expresses himself through public opinion favorable to a strong and efficient United Nations, can the discussions and debates be

fruitful. Only then can common ground for world opinion be found on which to base a lasting peace.

What is the High School Student Doing?

J. POPE DYER

Central High School, Chattanooga, Tennessee

There are certain areas of activity in which high school students are uniformly participating in varying degrees. Many citizens, frequently without knowledge of conditions, criticize the average high school student. We often hear the statement that students of today do not study; that they do not read books; that they do not attend religious services; that they are not interested in reading newspapers, and that they are slaves to movies, radio, sports, and comics for their entertainment.

Recently, a group of topics of special interest and significance was suggested by students. The answers to them gave some revealing information.

Some of the questions asked by the pupils were:

How many books, exclusive of assignments, does the average high school pupil in our school read each year?

How many times each week does the average pupil attend religious services?

How many picture shows a week does the average student attend?

How much time does the average student in our school spend in study each day?

How many hours weekly does the average pupil participate in sports, and how many hours does he or she act as a spectator?

How many hours daily does the average student listen to the radio?

How many minutes does the pupil spend in daily worship?

Is the average pupil reading the newspapers daily? If so, how much time does he give to editorials, news, sports, and comics?

These were a few of the proposed questions. A brief survey was made through a questionnaire, and a sampling was made of from 150

to 200 pupils from our student body of approximately 2000.

The study revealed that the average pupil in our school reads each year, excluding the assigned books in the various courses, approximately eight books. Of the total group participating in the survey, thirteen read more than twenty-five each year, and eight pupils of the group read no books at all beyond the assigned class work.

The study showed that some of our students were attending as many as five or more religious services a week, whereas four students had not attended any religious services at all. The median number attended each week by the pupils was two services.

Contrary to the popular belief that students are attending shows more often than religious services, we found that the average pupil was attending only one show a week, but there was one pupil who attended five shows a week, and eight pupils who did not attend a single show.

Pupils spent from six hours to ten minutes daily in study. Two students reported that it took them six hours a day to prepare their lessons; three reported that they spent about ten minutes a day. The median time spent in study each day by our pupils was two hours, excluding the time spent in recitations.

The popular belief that students are not participating in sports seems to be unfounded from the information secured. Our students reported that they were taking part in sports on the average of five hours per week. The mean number of hours that the pupils participated in sports weekly was over five hours, but there were ten pupils who spent less than one hour actively in sports. The median time spent in observing sports each week was two hours. Thir-

teen persons watched sports more than five hours each week, sixteen pupils watched less than one hour.

Pupils appear to be listening to the radio to a surprising degree. Our pupils reported that on an average school day they listened to the radio from six hours to less than one hour, with the median time of two hours. One pupil reported that she listened six hours a day, and nine pupils, less than one hour. On off-school days the time spent listening to the radio was on the increase, with the average pupil spending three hours each day. The range was from above eight hours each day reported by six to less than one hour reported by five. It is safe to say that the radio is a potent force for influencing our high school pupils.

The average pupil of our school is not reading editorials daily. Some of them are, but the majority read editorials less than ten minutes a day; a few read as much as thirty minutes

each day. Our pupils are reading the general news on the average of thirty minutes daily. They read sports on the average of ten minutes each day, and about a similar period of time is being spent on reading the comics.

The results of this brief survey are not final and absolutely accurate, but they do give us a picture of what the average pupil is doing in certain areas of life. We as teachers must study trends. We must know the interests of our pupils. We must learn to utilize these interests and channel them for the improvement of the student.

If education is the sum total of all the experiences of the child, then we as teachers must realize that the total picture of education extends beyond the classroom. If we are to enrich the lives of our pupils and contribute the maximum to the pupil, we must know the whole child—his needs, interests, and activities. The real teacher will do this and more!

A Newspaper Lesson in the Social Studies Class

SAUL ISRAEL

Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, New York

Social studies teachers have generally recognized the values of newspapers in illuminating class discussions of history and current affairs. Many have also appreciated the need for developing a critical attitude towards newspapers on the part of students, so that they might not fall victim to partisan propaganda.

It was with these thoughts in mind that the social studies department at Erasmus Hall High School, under the chairmanship of Miss Sara Garrett, decided to have a lesson on newspapers during the first week of the term. The lesson plan which follows was distributed to the department as a compendium of suggestions, from which topics would be selected to suit the particular grade level of various classes.

Aims. 1. To indicate the value of newspapers for social studies classes.

2. To develop an ability to read newspapers critically.

Previous Assignment. Bring copies of the

newspapers you read in your home to class. How does your newspaper deal with these topics (teacher selects topic depending on current interest and grade of subject): local government, national government, labor, political parties, foreign affairs, United Nations? Cut out appropriate clippings to support your view.

Motivating Problem. "The newspaper is history in the making." Explain.

Outline of Content. (Select whichever topics are useful).

1. Types of newspapers in New York
 - a. According to literary qualities
 - b. According to political views
 - c. According to sensationalism
2. Suggested criteria of a good newspaper
 - a. Objective news columns
 - b. World-wide news coverage
 - c. Interpretative editorials and columnists
 - d. Literary style

- e. Lack of sensationalism
- f. An interest in civic and national betterment
- 3. Departments of a newspaper of value to a social studies student
 - a. News section
 - b. Foreign and domestic articles
 - c. Editorials
 - d. Editorial cartoons
 - e. Letters to the editor
 - f. Columnists
 - g. Business page
 - h. Book reviews
- 4. The American press
 - a. Its merits
 - b. Its weaknesses
- 5. Supplements and correctives for newspaper reading
 - a. Radio—*Chicago Round Table, America's Town Meeting, American Forum of the Air*
 - b. Magazines—*Time, Newsweek, Nation, New Republic, Harper's, Scholastic, American Observer*
- 6. Specific course applications
 - a. Civics—New York City news in the press
 - b. European history—How the press has been used to promote nationalism, militarism, imperialism
 - c. American history—The press in the Spanish-American War, the isolationist press, big business and the press, the crusading press
 - d. Economics—The business section and business news in the newspaper
 - e. Economic geography—Maps and the press
- 7. Some general applications

The value of newspaper clippings for:

 - a. Scrapbooks and notebooks
 - b. Bulletin boards
 - c. As a basis for class discussions

Discussion Questions. 1. You can judge a man by the newspaper he reads. Do you agree?

- 2. Compare several newspapers as to:
 - a. Editorial policy
 - b. The extent to which its editorial policy influences its headlines, the position of the story in the paper, coloration of the stories
- 3. One student reads the *Journal-American*

and the *Mirror*; another *PM* and the *Post*. Do you think these students are getting a balanced diet in their reading? How would you improve it?

- 4. Before the last election (November, 1946), one of the newspapers ran the slogan, "Vote against New Deal Communism. Vote American." Other newspapers were labelling candidates as Fascists. Would you justify such newspaper tactics?
- 5. "You Get the Pictures—I'll Make the War" was a statement attributed to Hearst in the Spanish-American War. What does this indicate as to the role of the press in this instance?
- 6. When Franklin D. Roosevelt ran for the presidency, a majority of the newspapers were against him. How do you account for his victory?

Additional Questions for More Mature Students

- 1. "The American press is the freest press in the world." Do you agree?
- 2. "The American press is a branch of big business." Do you agree?
- 3. Recently the English House of Commons voted a commission of inquiry to study the extent to which monopolies have gained control of the press and are coloring the news. Do you think Congress ought to make such an inquiry here?
- 4. Czechoslovakia has adopted the system of licensing political parties to publish newspapers. Do you think this is a good practice?
- 5. Morris Ernst has suggested that the government subsidize small-town newspapers. Do you agree?

References: Pamphlets. 1. *New York Times in Social Science Classes.*

- 2. *Financial News—How to Read and Interpret It, New York Times.*
 - 3. *Financial Section of a Newspaper, New York Herald Tribune.*
 - 4. Public Affairs Pamphlet, No. 123, *Keep Our Press Free*, by Robert E. Cushman.
 - 5. Town Hall Bulletin, Vol. 12, No. 25, *Is the American Press Really Free?*
 - 6. University of Chicago Round Table, No. 453, *Free Flow of News and World Peace.*
- Books.* 1. *Autobiography of William Allen White.*

2. Chafee, Zechariah, *Free Speech in the United States*.
3. Ernst, Morris, *First Freedom*.
4. Ickes, Harold L., *Freedom of the Press Today*.
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6. Lippmann, Walter, *Public Opinion*.
7. Mill, John Stuart, *Essay on Liberty*.
8. Patterson, G. J., *Free Speech and a Free Press*.
9. Seitz, F. C., *Joseph Pulitzer*.
10. Seldes, George, *Freedom of the Press*.
11. Winkler, J. K., *W. R. Hearst*.

One unusual feature of the project was close correlation between the Social Studies Depart-

ment and the English Department. The latter supplemented discussions with the following topics for compositions:

1. A Balanced Diet in Newspaper Reading
2. A Man Can Be Judged by the Paper He Reads
3. Coloring the News
4. Letters to the Editor
5. The Columnist I Like (Dislike) Most
6. How Free Is Our Press?
7. Is Seeing Believing?
8. The Value of a Newspaper
9. The Struggle for Freedom of the Press
10. The Feature I Like Best in a Paper
11. Why I Like (Dislike) the.....
(name of newspaper)

Veteran-Student Opinion

EBER JEFFERY

Veterans High School Center, Washington, D. C.

In the Veterans High School Center at Washington, D. C., most of the men, 81 per cent, expect another war in their lifetime; half of them think it may come within ten years. Yet over one third believe that schools, churches, and political parties could promote cooperation among the nations more effectively than they have up to now. Compulsory military service is favored by a very large majority of the students and almost all of them would limit the period of service to not more than two years. One year would be satisfactory to more than half of the men.

Members of labor unions did their share or more in the war effort, according to 73 per cent of the former G.I.'s. Industrial workers "have and ought to have the right to strike," in the opinion of an even larger proportion of this group.

With regard to their own education, the veterans rate mathematics the most popular of their required subjects in a close finish over history. For the improvement of schools, more men checked this item than any other of a dozen choices: better advice and guidance on high school courses, college plans, and jobs. A close

second was: more and freer classroom discussions. In recreation, football outstrips all other activities both as a spectator and a participant sport.

These reactions and a variety of others were obtained by means of a questionnaire-poll survey of 1,000 veterans at the school. The men exhibited a thoroughly cooperative spirit in answering the twenty-eight questions submitted. No one was compelled to furnish answers and all were free to omit any questions they wished. This effort at ascertaining veteran opinion was made with the hope of establishing something better than mere guesses about "what the veterans are thinking." Also, information regarding the social outlook of the students was thought to be of use in developing further the guidance and instructional program.

The typical veteran submitting answers was 21 years and 7 months of age, in the 11th grade, and had spent 3 years in the armed service. The range in age extended from 17 to 39 years and in service from 7 months to 20 years.

Almost 8,000,000 of the men, 61 per cent, who served in the army, navy, and marine corps

during the war had not finished high school when they entered the service.¹ As young veterans now, their outlook, their cultural tastes, and their economic convictions, are certain to form significant sectors of the social pattern of this country for the next generation or two. It seems apparent that not all of our current educational problems are centered around the present-day congestion in the colleges, serious as the overcrowding may be. Immediate demands at the high school level are more than taxing the facilities in many communities, and the implications for adult education programs reach far into the future.

MILITARY IDEAS

1. Should all physically fit young men now be required to serve a term in the armed services?

Yes	790	81 per cent
No	179	19 per cent

Total 969

2. If yes, how long should the term of service extend?

1 year	475	55 per cent
2 years	360	42 per cent
3 years	23	3 per cent

Total 858

3. At what age should the men be drafted?

18	383	52 per cent
19	202	28 per cent
20	80	11 per cent
21	69	9 per cent
22	0	0

Total 734

A large number of comments were offered in place of exact ages or terms of years in the answers to Questions 2 and 3 such as: "After completing high school," or "Leave choice of the time but not length of service to the individual within limits."

The tabulations are made in percentages of the exact replies received. The "don't-know" or "no-opinion" technique encourages too many evasive answers for most questions, in the opinion of this investigator.

4. In view of modern developments like

atomic bombs, jet propulsion, and proximity fuses, do you think our country can get along with smaller army ground forces?

Yes	362	37 per cent
No	621	63 per cent

Total 983

5. With a smaller navy?

Yes	237	24 per cent
No	723	76 per cent

Total 960

6. With smaller air forces?

Yes	73	8 per cent
No	890	92 per cent

Total 963

7. What did you learn from or acquire in your military service that you consider of value to yourself? Check one or two.

Broadened outlook from travel	385
Personal resourcefulness	337
Discipline	323
A trade skill	175
Respect for other races and peoples	112
Improved health training	87
Habits of courtesy	67
Gambling	43
Nothing	30
Antagonism toward other races and peoples	22
Total choices	1,581

PEACE OR WAR

8. Do you expect another big war in your lifetime?

Yes	742	81 per cent
No	170	19 per cent

Total 912

9. If so, how soon?

5 years	118	14 per cent
10 years	308	35 per cent
25 years	223	26 per cent
Comments	219	25 per cent

Total 868

10. Which one of these expressions comes closest to your idea of the future of the United Nations?

¹ Ernest V. Hollis, "Data for State-Wide Planning of Veterans' Education," U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin No. 5, 1945.

The U.N. will
succeed in
preventing
future wars 99 12 per cent

The U.N. will
build a world
union as
strong and
successful as
our own Un-
ion of States 92 11 per cent

The U.N. will
break up in
dissension
among the
nations 435 52 per cent
Comments 208 25 per cent

Total 834

11. How effectively can schools, churches,
and political parties promote cooperation among
the nations?

Enough to pre-
vent future
wars 322 38 per cent

Enough to
postpone the
evil day of
war 315 37 per cent

Not enough to
bother with
the subject 95 11 per cent
Comments 117 14 per cent

Total 849

LABOR

12. Which of these three statements corres-
ponds most closely with your own opinion?

Labor unions generally:

Did their share
in the war
effort 510 53 per cent

Retarded or
held up the
war effort 275 29 per cent

Made an ex-
ceptional
contribution
to the war
effort 178 18 per cent

Total 963

13. Industrial workers, for the most part,
have, and ought to have, the right to strike.

Right 842 87 per cent
Wrong 125 13 per cent

Total 967

14. Should labor unions be expanded to in-
clude oil station workers, taxicab drivers, and
other workers not yet thoroughly organized?

Yes 390 45 per cent
No 472 55 per cent

Total 862

15. Labor unions should be held more respon-
sible for carrying out provisions of contracts
and other legal obligations than has been the
case in the past.

Right 820 93 per cent
Wrong 63 7 per cent

Total 883

GOVERNMENT CONTROLS

16. Government regulation of farm prices
and farm production in peacetime has been:

About right 420 54 per cent
Not strict
enough 217 28 per cent
Too strict 140 18 per cent

Total 777

17. Radio programs should be subject to:

More thorough
government
control 75 11 per cent

More complete
control by
business
sponsors 198 29 per cent
No opinion 412 60 per cent

Total 685

18. More government censorship would:

Improve radio
programs 50 5 per cent

Endanger the
principle of
freedom of
speech 740 79 per cent
No opinion 145 16 per cent

Total 935

The "no-opinion choice was included for these two statements because of the impression that the problem of radio regulation probably had not been discussed much among the men.

19. Which would be more in line with our democratic ideals?

For the Federal government to leave elections in the hands of State authorities	505	59 per cent
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For the Federal Government to supervise elections in the several States more rigidly.	357	41 per cent
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Total	862
-------	-----

20. Industries affecting most of the people, like railroads, telegraph companies, and the oil industry should be:

Left in private hands	550	62 per cent
Operated by the government	340	38 per cent

Total	890
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OCCUPATIONS

21. What kind of work do you prefer for your permanent occupation? Check one in the following list of occupations in which you think you can serve well or in which you could do well if you had suitable training.

Here followed an alphabetical list of 45 occupations. Fifty of the men added 32 others of their own choice. The ten most frequently chosen vocations were:

Electrical engineer	95
Journalist	56
Physician	49
Accountant	48
Draftsman	47
Electrician	45
Lawyer	45
Air conditioning business	43
Automobile mechanic	41

Foreign service	39
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If these 1,000 students could follow vocations of their choice, and if they were to form the working male population of a community of 4,500 persons, the community would be served by 95 electrical engineers, 56 journalists (total surprise), 49 physicians, 2 bartenders, 1 house-painter, 2 bakers, 4 radio announcers, and 1 sculptor. There would be available 13 teachers of physical education, 3 other teachers, 3 ministers of the Gospel, 4 professional baseball players, 31 aircraft mechanics, and the community would be represented abroad by 39 of its citizens in foreign service. The local citizenry should be well provided with private transportation for there is not to be a bus driver or cab operator in town. It is to be hoped that if the men fulfill their vocational aspirations, they will not all move to the same small town, else some may languish in want of patronage.

SCHOOLING

22. What subject do you like best in school?

Here were listed 13 conventional high school fields of study. Results follow only for the 4 subjects required in Washington, D. C., high schools for graduation.

Mathematics	221
History	201
Science	180
English	91

23. What subject do you dislike most in school?

Results for the same 4 required subjects:

English	362
Science	129
Mathematics	107
History	103

Does the unpopularity of English as a high school subject seem decidedly out of line with the prominence of journalism as a vocational choice? If so, this is one of the few marked inconsistencies readily apparent in the results.

24. In your opinion how could schools most readily be improved? Do not check more than 3 of the following 12 suggestions.

Results of the first 4 in the order of frequency of choice.

Better advice and guidance on high school courses, college plans and jobs	491
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More and freer classroom discussions 420

More field trips, excursions to government exhibits, business institutions, factories, etc. 128

More movies for instructional purposes 117

25. Would you be willing to pay more taxes with your own money for improved school equipment and better teaching?

Yes 737 79 per cent

No 200 21 per cent

Total 937

Sample comments: "Yes, if I thought it would really go for improvement."

"No, if they expect to dish out more of the same old stuff."

"Yes, if they can get up some good scheme that will pick out good teachers, then give them decent pay."

RECREATION

26. What sports or kinds of recreation do you like best to take part in? Check two if you wish.

In a list of 12, against which there were 1737 checks, the leading 5 are tabulated.

Football 475

Baseball 260

Swimming 242

Basketball 143

Bowling 134

27. What kind of recreation do you like best as spectator or listener?

In a list of 9, against which there were 1,396 checks, the leading 5 are tabulated.

Football 522

Movies 235

Music 197

Baseball 115

The legitimate theater 102

28. Would you be willing to pay more taxes with your own money for better recreational facilities?

Yes 615 71 per cent

No 248 29 per cent

Total 863

Sample comments:

"Yes, for this town especially, where they haven't a decent gym to hold a crowd."

"No, we can afford plenty of money for schools; not another cent for play stuff."

OBSERVATIONS

It is scarcely expected that this compilation of responses from so small a sampling of ex-G.I.'s may stir the educational world into a frenzy. Yet, the results probably can be ranked a degree or so above the old process of "discovering the obvious." We can be quite sure that a majority of 1,000 recently discharged veterans, not highly schooled, who live in the vicinity of the national capital entertain beliefs fairly represented by these statements:

1. Compulsory military service should be required by national authorities. Modern technological developments do not warrant reduction of the armed forces. Another war is to be expected soon.

2. Prospects are not bright for the success of a cooperative association of nations. Schools, churches, and political parties can do something towards promoting cooperation among the nations.

3. Labor unions did their share or more in the war effort. Union members have, and ought to have, the right to strike. Unions should be held more responsible for fulfilling contracts.

4. Censorship of radio would impair freedom of speech.

5. Elections should be left largely under the direction of state authorities.

6. Large industries should remain under private ownership.

7. Occupations of the professional type are the most desirable.

8. Mathematics and history are preferable school subjects (large percentage, not a majority): English is not a very enjoyable subject (large percentage, not a majority).

9. Schools should provide better educational and vocational guidance and should encourage freer classroom discussions.

10. Football (largest percentage by far), baseball, and swimming are the best participant sports. Football (largest percentage by far), movies, and music are preferable forms of spectator-listener recreation.

INFERENCES FOR EDUCATION

Little that is startling appears in this list of veterans' responses. Mostly they represent "normal" American ideas weighted rather heavily with war expectancy, compulsory military service, and football. While the findings

can hardly be considered a basis for exciting innovations in education, they may tend to emphasize a few evident needs:

1. Of the very highest importance is the building of a program designed to instill into youthful minds the realization that the present day is, in all likelihood, our final chance of building up the machinery for international harmony and peaceful existence, or existence of any kind, for human beings.

2. Sound, objective, critical study of labor problems should be required if sound, objective critical teachers can be found.

3. Thoroughgoing guidance programs are obviously in need of further development to familiarize students with vocational opportunities, with types of training needed, and with their own capacities.

4. Sensible treatment of national military policy ought to make its appearance somewhere in the social science program. The subject always has been shunned, neglected, and practically outlawed, even though military expenses have made up the largest item of the taxpayers' burden for generations. A calm survey of military legislation, functions of the military establishment, expenditures, and values in training (if any) could do no damage and might reduce

the dangers of control by caprice and emotional spasms.

5. The causes of the evident distaste for high school English should be sought out. English is the only subject required for four full years in the District of Columbia high schools, and has therefore more time to work up student dissatisfaction. Suggestions for correcting this difficulty are not among the purposes of this paper. But English as our most important instrument of learning and expression should be a fascinating field of study.

Reactions to this questionnaire appear to substantiate the theory that we need never hesitate to throw social and educational problems into the reservoir of student discussion. The students fumble the ball awkwardly at times, but, even though they wander aimlessly around in the twilight of dim information, they are likely to arrive at acceptably sensible answers. The earnestness, in some cases eagerness, with which the men attacked the list of questions in this case was gratifying indeed. No facetious or flippant note was found in the 1,000 papers examined. Many of the men asked for copies to take home for further study. Perhaps the disclosure of this wholesome attitude was worth as much as any other factor in the study.

Effective Enthusiasm of Danish Folk Education

PART I

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Those who cast doubt upon the efficacy of social education and cooperative effort as a cultural leaven in the total life of a people should look to Denmark for a renaissance of hope. The Scandinavian Folkehøjskoler or People's Colleges do exemplify the proposition that men can achieve much by sharing thought, deed and enthusiasm. The dominant impulse in Danish societal levitation was set on foot one hundred years ago by the poet and bishop, N. F. S. Grundtvig.

¹ Dr. Hansome recently received the King Christian X Medal of Liberation for his work on behalf of Danish freedom during the Nazi occupation. (Ed.).

The centennial of the founding of the folk high school movement (November 7, 1844) passed during the war without receiving much notice, even by historians of education. The event itself warrants attention because some of the ideas advanced by Grundtvig are relevant also to present-day problems in the world. Therefore, we invite the reader's interest in a great personality hitherto neglected by social philosophers and historians on this side of the Atlantic.

The manner in which sensitive, creative men respond to crises in history gives meaning to the concept of time. Their thought, words, and

deeds reveal the quality of intelligence and feeling in the people's vanguard of a given historical period.

How did Plato respond to the declining state of Greece? The answer is in the classical *Republic*, a seminal book born in the glorious minds of Socrates and his star pupil. How did St. Augustine react to the fallen imperial prestige of Rome? Take a tour through the *City of God*. How did Marx interpret the industrial revolution and the conflict of the classes? Read the *Communist Manifesto*. How did Grundtvig respond to the shrinking territorial periphery of Denmark? He raised a challenging question: How can an outward loss be compensated by an inward gain?

While groping for an answer Grundtvig passed through intellectual and religious crises that brought him to the very brink of temporary derangement. He emerged whole and imbued with an irresistible impulse to begin a great mission. That mission he perceived in terms of seven needs or aspects of consciousness: an awakening in the Danish people to a better appreciation of Christianity, a strengthening of the bond of national solidarity, a deepening love of the mother tongue, a keener sense of history, an adult social education in wide commonalty spread, and the fostering of an international mindedness.

Grundtvig's idea of adult education ignited a creative spark in the mind of Kristen Kold who teamed up with the Bishop. Kold became one of Denmark's best beloved People's College teachers.

FAMOUS TEAMS

History has produced some famous complementary pairs: Socrates and Plato, Luther and Melancthon, Owen and Francis Wright, Marx and Engels, Browning and Elizabeth, Faust and Mephisto, Darwin and Huxley, Dewey and Kilpatrick, Sidney and Beatrice Webb, Roosevelt and Wallace, Lenin and Stalin, Grundtvig and Kold. The last mentioned pair functioned very much like Luther and Melancthon, the one formulating the theory and ideals, the other giving them practical implementation. Kristen Kold is thus assured of a share in any laurels coming to Grundtvig through his having been the instigator of the adult education movement in Scandinavia. Grundtvig publicly acknowledged his debt to Kold and referred to him as

"Denmark's, Scandinavia's, yes, perhaps the world's greatest schoolman." That is high praise from one responsible man to another. Whether or not that encomium as such will stand does not matter. Historians of schooling and education in the future will accord Kold an honored place in the succession of great teachers.

Many of the progressive ideas of John Dewey and Joseph K. Hart were practiced by that humble son of a shoemaker before the public school system was fully established in America. Kold understood the art of being interesting, and art almost lost in Akademia. With reference to foreign nations, Danes are rather unassuming; they are undistinguished as verbal advertisers abroad. They would prefer to let their work speak qualitatively. (Here in America, for example, the Danes are not given to ululating about minority status.) The language barrier also kept Grundtvig and Kold out of the general stream of historical attention and recording. (American theologians have currently discovered the challenging Danish philosopher of religion, Soren Kierkegaard, a contemporary of Grundtvig, apparently somewhat to their embarrassment. Webster's International is still laggard in that respect.)

GRUNDTVIG'S SCHOOLING

As the son of a pastor, Grundtvig seems to have acquired an inordinate antipathy toward the lifeless bones of theology—a consequence frequently observed in the progeny of ministers. Into the reasons one need not enter since they are quite commonplace, if not notorious. Eighteenth century rationalism, the French Illuminati, Fichte, Pestalozzi, Rousseau, and Robert Owen made some appeal to Grundtvig, but his youthful scepticism was soon dispelled by German romanticism that seemed to click with his poetic and passionate temperament. In his home he was much influenced by his mother, and by Malene, a governess, whose colossal repertoire of hymns, ballads, racy words, colloquialisms, adages, legends, and stories he avidly absorbed more readily than the "meaningless" abstractions of the Lutheran catechism. At the age of nine he was sent to Thyregod, Jutland, to live with a pastor who prepared Grundtvig for the Latin School. In that section he saw something of the impoverished life of ignorant and superstitious peas-

ants, so humorously portrayed in Ludvig Holberg's comedies.

The Latin School with its abundant, fuscous testimony of the dead bored him nearly to desperation. The dead languages and the memorization of texts without understanding the meaning, he concluded, was a school for death, not for life. Later he often referred to the Latin School as "the dark school." Pupils were led as if by a taut rope thinking in two-four, either-or time. The catechetical method, rote learning, severely repressed feelings, the idolizing of the goose-step discipline, the beatification of the examination system were all necessary phases of the process of becoming streamlined for the pastorate. This process Grundtvig detested with undiminished vehemence throughout his long life. It is this kind of process, Grundtvig concluded, which leads some of our youth to hate what we want them to do and to love what we don't want them to do. In a lament for his own children who were subjected to the same school routine as he had been, he wrote: "Even as they grow, they become diminutive."

When Grundtvig delivered his maiden (probationary) speech before the Lutheran Hierarchy in Copenhagen he took occasion to rap the priesthood for having lulled the populace to sleep ever since the time of Dante. He also inquired: "How have God's words disappeared from His House?" These censures met with bitter resentment, and under the aegis of a Royal Resolution, Grundtvig was refused a pastorate in Copenhagen for a period of six years.

Grundtvig was a thoroughgoing Lutheran, though he did not excel his master. The dilemma which Luther failed to resolve remained the same in the hands, or rather in the head of Grundtvig. Luther, it will be recalled, rebelled against the authority of the Pope, and asserted the authority of the Scriptures. But the Bible is subject to various interpretations and as people gradually attained to literacy, they read in their own meaning, with the consequence that sects multiplied and divided—a reciprocal, undesigned response to the secular process. Luther failed to avail himself of the scientific inquiry of his day.

If Grundtvig had been infected by the greatest discovery of the nineteenth century, the scientific method (Darwin was his contempor-

ary), he would have inquired into the grounds for the presuppositions bequeathed by the hero of the Reformation. He could then, as the philosopher Höffding did later, have pointed to the open vistas, the limitless horizons of change, the emergent possibilities which incite to continuous rethinking and compel a philosopher to hold his conclusions tentatively.

Grundtvig was schooled in the purely humanistic tradition which in its classical form ran largely into verbalism, if not Ciceronianism. This handicap he, like Pestalozzi, never surmounted. Besides, he was so steeped in theology as to be completely immunized to scientific infection.

GRUNDTVIG'S ANTI-SCIENTIFIC ATTITUDE

Grundtvig combated the Copernican System and denied that the heliocentric theory had been established beyond doubt. He still held to the archaic Ptolemaic conception, or the Chaldaic, geocentric theory. He thought he could rely as much upon his own unaided eyes as upon the astronomical extension of the human eye. When someone reproved him on the myopic and muddy quality of his viewpoint, he retorted: "Clarity is the end we seek and we cannot expect it to be our staff during the quest." But, no critical thinker should neglect the use of such clarifying instruments as are extant, nor hold to a position which better knowledge has rendered untenable. He speculated upon the cause of the inclination of the plane of the ecliptic. This phenomenon he attributed to the fall of man from grace. In the light of science that statement is mere phantasy, a vagary, if not an aberration. Of course the scientific fraternity was amused at such pathetic naiveté. Critics wrinkled their noses or shrugged their shoulders with pitiful contempt. Grundtvig replied that scientific men were ungodly, unbelievers, depraved, enemies of God. H. C. Oersted, a creative scientist polemicized with Grundtvig with the result that Grundtvig isolated himself from the scientific world. Isolation from contemporary progressive movements may lead a person into unintelligibility, cynicism, and hostility. While Grundtvig's attitude toward science was antipathetic, his buoyant and poetic nature impelled him toward hopeful and positive action. Yet scientifically, he dated himself unnecessarily.

Grundtvig believed a good deal that wasn't

so. He could be certain of what was still an unverified proposition. Herbert Spencer also knew a great deal, but when he claimed to know the unknowable, he exhibited more vanity than erudition. This propensity to vain arrogance made his learned contemporaries hold aloof. Science and critical thought do not allow as much certainty or proof as the naive minds demand. Grundtvig found it difficult not to be inconsistent but dangerously easy to be rigid and dogmatic. It was this non-attractive quality, no doubt, which led Georg Brandes to allude to "a certain person plays the role of being God's prophet, let himself be cultivated as a Pope." And further, "the truth is more honorable than mere age." At the moment Brandes, at the zenith of his glory, could hardly foresee that this shaft hurled at Grundtvig would turn into a boomerang and come back at him years later when he himself was ironically called a "canonized veteran" who among the younger writers was an object of taboo. In his embracing of the superman, Brandes isolated himself above the battle in an ivory tower.

GRUNDTVIG AND THE CHURCH

Grundtvig's contribution to the church was fourfold: He declared that life is a higher value than death and that we live to understand and control life for the good of all. He preached a joyous, simple Christianity for life via the living word. His work brought more freedom of initiative within the church organization. Through his prodigious composition of hymns—over 300—he made all churchgoers under Grundtvigian ministration into veritable glee clubs. Cheer, in place of fear, and cooperative service, he declared, tended to dissolve the feeling of guilt. Spiritual hedonism was an effect of action in behalf of the common good.

The themes of his hymns and songs proclaim the love of God, love of neighbor, love of fatherland, love of the mother tongue, and love of family.

An astounding number and variety characterize his production: poetic works—nine volumes; hymns, ballads, songs—five volumes; prose, history, mythology, translations—ten volumes. In addition, he published many sermons, pamphlets, schoolbooks, and for four years, a weekly magazine.

GRUNDTVIG AS A PROLIFIC WRITER

As a writer Grundtvig was always concerned

with how to reach an ever wider circle of readers among the common people. Let others write for the *Gelehrten*! Grundtvig was a creative writer, not a critic. He admitted that a good deal of his productivity welled forth like a freshet, overflowing the banks of a river, but he preferred life and strength and exhilaration to straining for form and meticulous build-up. He exemplified the advice Elizabeth Barrett gave to Robert Browning: "Keep up the fire and leave the generous flames to shape themselves." A good deal of his prose lacks precision, unity and clarity. Much of it is verbose, even garrulous, some of it is woolly, patternless, like a heap of hay waiting to be fashioned into a symmetrical stack. He seems not to have taken the necessary time to properly digest his materials.

Reading Grundtvig one cannot escape the suggestion that he was not at all times in complete control of himself. Like Jean Jacques Rousseau, he felt more than he saw. "When one starts out from the spiritual impulse one feels," he wrote, "one is obviously starting out from what is deepest, but also from what is most mysterious in man, and that mysterious deep, the depth of the heart, would have to be pure and undefiled to enable us, by merely following the longings and impulses which arise from it always to seek and grasp the truth." In this he echoed Kierkegaard who conceived his life purpose to be the achievement of integrity at any price. Since most men are not saints, impulse must be guided by intelligence. The quoted passage reveals Grundtvig in search of a more objective procedure. Why didn't he look into science and political economy?

Grundtvig's songs, ballads, and poems are really his métier. They reveal his undisputed genius. Many of them are the common emotional currency of the Danish people. He, like Goethe, could also sing like the birds, but more often Grundtvig had a definite purpose which he wanted to get over. He was a missionary, a teleologist, a lay preacher, a fellow-worker in the apostolic succession.

PATRIOT AND NATIONALIST

If one word could characterize the dominant outlook of Grundtvig and, indeed, of the great spokesmen of the nineteenth century, that word is struggle. Struggle is the key-word. "Wir müssen streben," said Goethe. "Struggle and

work," echoed Carlyle. "Struggle for existence," observed the gentle Darwin. "Life is a struggle," rang out of the Norse Valhalla. The struggle for "integrity" absorbed the life of Kierkegaard. *The Leaves of Grass* swayed with struggle. When John Swinton, social reformer asked Karl Marx: "What is?" Marx answered: "Struggle."

Unlike Marx, Grundtvig was not an economic reformer. He hoped that general enlightenment would bring social-economic conditions which would allow the individual personality to realize his fulfillment. The economic problem he dismissed in the wish that "few would have too much, and fewer still too little."

Grundtvig's youth came at an unhappy time. Denmark had experienced three wars corresponding in time approximately with Grundtvig's youth, middle age and maturity. He witnessed the shameful bombardment of Copenhagen by the British (1801) and the loss of the fleet in 1807. This left a wake of profound embitterment toward England. Then Norway was lost in 1814. In 1864 North Schleswig was taken by the Prussians. The total eclipse of Denmark seemed imminent. One can understand the grounds for his unflinching patriotism and his flaming sentiment of nationality which in crisis narrowed into nationalism.

SOLIDARITY AND COOPERATION

Grundtvig felt called to awaken the people. The wisdom and courage of the whole people must be reborn. Hence his appeal to the conception of the *Folk*. Only the Folk as a whole was inclusive enough to meet the problem. A Folk has roots in the past, he reasoned. History properly conceived gives man a feeling of belonging. No one needs to feel isolated. No one in his senses would advocate a total break with the cultural inheritance even if that were possible which it is not, since man is first of all a social being utterly dependent on the culture.

Grundtvig saw clearly that it is only in cooperation with neighbors that social personality can come to fruition. He avoided the atomistic position of the extreme individualistic anarchist who thinks society exists wholly for the individual as such. He understood that an individual is a link or a term in a larger relationship. The individual must know and feel that he belongs, since the springs of human action reside in the feelings. The soul of man,

Grundtvig held, is to be found in the blood of kin.

How to create a folk mind conscious that togetherness in life is ever a higher value than isolation in death? That one problem he set for himself. The search for the way to develop this consciousness of nationality—which is the nation—sent him on a trail of historical studies that led to the mythological past, to Greece, to the Saga period, and eventually to England.

Did not the great thinkers and writers of Greece purposely allude to their heroes of old—historical and mythological? In the Renaissance Petrarch, who wrote also in the vernacular, showed people that reading could be a source of pleasure. Dr. Martin Luther translated the Bible into the vernacular so common people could read it. All great thinkers and teachers have concerned themselves with the spread of literacy. As modern instances one must mention Dr. Hu Shih, V. Lenin, and Dr. T. Kagawa.

IN ENGLAND

Grundtvig made four different study tours in England on a Royal stipend in the years 1829, 1830, 1831, and 1843. He met many of the creative personages, literary somebodies, and other public characters including Robert Owen. His ideas on freedom and education were considerably fertilized by these contacts. Association with British humor savored his zest for life and love. At first glance the feverish pace of industrialization of England impressed him favorably. "In England," he wrote, "I learned to give more weight to reality." Like John Ruskin, however, he was deeply concerned lest the achievements of the new technology would also mechanize the soul of man. The depersonalization of the individual contradicted the value of Christianity set upon every individual.

The divorcing of families from the land by the enclosure movement he deplored with grave misgivings, just as Thomas Jefferson recoiled from the increasing proletarianization in the cities. Grundtvig had a good chance to see the social effects of industrial exploitation. At the time of his last visit, wretched conditions prevailed in the Lancashire region. The Parliamentary member from Rochdale reported in the House of Commons that some 2,500 families were starving slowly on the incredible amount of two shillings per week. Families slept in

beds of chaff without blankets, had only ragged clothes as covers—even weavers! Denmark must not be allowed to drift in the same direction, Grundtvig vowed.

The effort to avoid this mistaken social direction gave impetus to his plan for adult education. At this juncture Grundtvig enters upon the world scene. It may not be ungermane to remark here that only a short time after

Grundtvig had left the British Museum, another ardent searcher for the truth, Karl Marx, entered that grand depository of mental delights. Each of these men sought honestly in thought, word, and deed to complete the incomplete.

(To be concluded in the May issue of
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The Harvard Plan: A Reaction

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The Harvard Plan in essence is one for having more general education in the secondary school. According to this plan, students preparing to attend university or college would spend 50 per cent of their time on the secondary level in studying mathematics, social sciences, the humanities and science. With the addition of a modern language, this would provide a well-rounded program. Students not planning to go on to higher educational institutions would spend two thirds of their time on the regular curriculum.

The Harvard Plan has been held to be undemocratic and one that places too much emphasis on culture. As a matter of contrast, the "Farm Town" and "American City" educational plans outlined for hypothetical communities by the National Educational Association have been cited. These have a study-work basis and a more direct vocational slant which would reach many out-of-school and out-of-work youth. For various reasons, the most important of which is the early necessity of earning a livelihood, the ordinary school curriculum has not met the needs of this particular group and they have dropped out of school. Whether they were "non-performers" or whether prerequisites or curricular demands were too rigid, the NEA plans were designed to cope with the situation and provide a program leading to more immediate realization of vocational objectives.

It is needless to say, however, that education is far more than preparation to earn a livelihood, although the latter may be, and

often is, the *sine qua non* of all other achievement for the majority of our American youth. Education, however, is designed to meet far wider needs: to permeate and influence all areas of life. Youth must know something of how the present has evolved from the culture base of the past, of how men have functioned in their various societies in meeting their needs, of how our todays are making our tomorrows.

Man can do little that is not done in groups—for, by, and with, his fellow-men. Consequently, it is imperative that he learns to understand his fellow-men so that he will get along with them. The Harvard plan stresses this preparation of youth to take their place in society. No acquisition of vocational skills will prove to be of greater importance. This understanding is the objective of the social sciences and the humanities of the Harvard plan, while mathematics is a tool of fine precision, and general science paves the way to orientation in modern technology. Acquaintance with the literature of a foreign people is one of the best methods of knowing the spirit of a people and of appraising their customs, mores and folkways.

The Harvard plan suggests a minimum, but it does provide for a foundation on which to continue education should the opportunity present itself, or if interests should change with greater maturity. Eighty per cent of the present students in some of our universities are there because of the provisions of the G.I. bill. Many of these students did not dream the opportunity to attend a university was within

the realm of possibility for them. Had they done so, the matter of more adequate planning might have received greater consideration. Some who might have taken advantage of the G.I. bill found their early training precluded college entrance or if permitted to enter, they were unable to cope with the competition they faced.

Moreover, youth is a period of transient interests. Freshmen in secondary schools often disclaim all intention of going on to college or university. Mortality in the high schools is heavy but if the student survives until the senior year, maturity brings a greater feeling of responsibility. Students then think in terms of earning a livelihood and as the need for further preparation becomes more and more

apparent, they talk of little else but going to college. It is well to be trained so one is "equal to either fortune." The Harvard plan should prove effective in preparing students who will be able to take their places in a democratic society and to improve that society. There should be no place today for indifferent, drifting, mob-following individuals. Many years ago, Dante wrote: "Give light and the people will find their way." If democracy is to function effectively, not less but *more*, cultivation is a "consummation devoutly to be wished." The present generation must bring all they can to the task before them. No generation in history has been given such advantages and none has ever faced a greater challenge. In the hands of this generation lies the future of democracy.

The Little Entente: A Post-Mortem

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Following the World War of 1914-1918, Czechoslovakia, Rumania and Yugoslavia, all three legatees of part of the Hapsburg patrimony, found themselves depending for the maintenance of their rights on their own uncorrelated efforts, on the uncertain action of their great allies and on the fiat of the League of Nations, still in its infancy and without material means for enforcing its decisions. National sentiments had been profoundly stirred, and it would not have been strange had each of the Danubian and Balkan states struggled along its own separate path, making temporary arrangements to meet individual events and avoiding definite or continuing commitments toward the others.

This might have occurred had Hungary disciplined itself in accordance with Gambetta's excellent advice to his compatriots after the Franco-Prussian War, to think about Alsace-Lorraine always, but to speak of it never. Instead the Magyars of all ranks spoke on every possible occasion, in private and public, of their determination to win back every inch of the territory formerly belonging to the Sacred

Crown of St. Stephen, regardless of the fact that of the 22,000,000 who before the war paid it tribute less than half were Magyars, and that, despite glaring injustices at various points, the boundaries of post-war Hungary inclosed over two-thirds of the Magyar race. By their indiscreet defiance, added to the threats of a Hapsburg restoration, they drove the new states into combination against them and incidentally against Austria.

The landscape was dark in most parts of Europe during the winter of 1919-1920. The precarious situation of the republican regime in Germany, the tension along the Russo-Rumanian frontier, Poland's isolation and her acute disagreements with Soviet Russia and Lithuania, d'Annunzio's raid on Fiume were in themselves enough to plunge the whole constellation of Succession States¹ into perturbation and gloom. Then on March 1 came the election of Admiral Horthy as regent of Hungary, followed by White excesses which added fuel to

¹ A term used to designate the new and new-old states of central Europe which included Austria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Rumania and Yugoslavia.

the flames of Magyar nationalism.

For a time, on the initiative of Rumania, unsuccessful attempts were made to weld all the new states into an alliance. In the meantime, Dr. Eduard Benes, the Foreign Minister of Czechoslovakia, took the lead in informal *pourparlers* as to how the position of the Danubian states might be strengthened and consolidated. Feeling the need for a solid front among the Succession States of the old Empire, Dr. Benes approached Ante Trumbic of Yugoslavia in December, 1919, in Paris, with the project of a Czechoslovak-Yugoslav alliance. On January 5, 1920, similar negotiations were opened with Rumania. In February, 1920, direct negotiations took place between Prague and Belgrade. The conclusion of an alliance was hastened by the Kapp *putsch* in Germany in March of that year, and the fear of restoration of the old order led to the signing, on August 14, 1920, of the Czechoslovak-Yugoslav Convention of Alliance.

This convention, which was the political and juridical foundation of the consequent Danubian alliance, began by stating that its main purpose was to maintain the peace which had been obtained at great sacrifices, and which was embodied in the Pact of the League of Nations, and also to maintain the order established by the Treaty of Trianon between the Allies and Hungary. In case of an unprovoked attack upon either state by Hungary, the two states were to cooperate in defense against the foe. Furthermore neither party was to conclude an alliance with a third party without giving previous notice to the other. The convention was to remain in force for two years, and it was to be registered with the League of Nations. To strengthen this pact a military convention was signed on August 1, 1921.

Czechoslovakia and Rumania were slower in arranging an alliance, but immediately after the conclusion of the Czechoslovak-Yugoslav Convention, Dr. Benes and Take Jonescu of Rumania agreed they would assist one another pending the conclusion of a formal convention of defensive alliance.

Yugoslavia and Rumania at this time were at odds over boundary delimitation, especially in the Banat section, and a treaty of alliance seemed for the time impossible. However, fear

of a restoration in Hungary outweighed frontier jealousies and a treaty of defensive alliance on the model of the Czechoslovak-Rumanian convention was signed on July 2, 1921. The Yugoslav-Rumanian instrument had reference to the Treaty of Neuilly as well as to the Treaty of Trianon, both Rumania and Yugoslavia having received territorial concessions at the expense of Bulgaria. The convention therefore provided for common action in the event that either Bulgaria or Hungary should attempt to upset the new *status quo*.

In the meantime, Rumania and Czechoslovakia had signed on April 23, 1921, a convention of defensive alliance which was identical with the Czechoslovak-Yugoslav Convention except that it contained an explicit provision that the two governments should pursue a concerted policy in regard to Hungary. As in the case of Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia, a military convention between Czechoslovakia and Rumania was signed on July 2, 1921, giving teeth to the political instrument.

The first test of the Little Entente,² as this new alliance came to be called, and an example of the power which it yielded, came when ex-King Charles of Hapsburg attempted to regain the Hungarian throne. In fact, it was this incident which precipitated the signature of the conventions of alliance between Czechoslovakia and Rumania and between Yugoslavia and Rumania, respectively eight and ten months after the signing of the original Czechoslovak-Yugoslav Convention.

The Allied Supreme Council had placed a ban on the return of any Hapsburg as head of the Hungarian Government. In February, 1920, the Conference of Ambassadors declared publicly that a Hapsburg restoration in Hungary could not be regarded as merely a domestic affair of the Hungarian state, and that it would be neither recognized nor tolerated by the principal allied powers. On January 27, 1921, Dr. Benes declared in a speech in the Czechoslovak Parliament that an attempt at restoration

² The name "The Little Entente" was first used in derision by a Hungarian journal, but soon afterwards found general acceptance as an appropriate appellation. The best accounts of the alliance are found in John O. Crane, *The Little Entente* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931), and Robert Machray, *The Little Entente* (New York: Richard R. Smith, Inc., 1930).

"would constitute for certain of Hungary's neighbors a veritable *casus belli*," and furthermore added that "95 per cent of the difficulties with neighboring States would disappear the moment that those neighbors of the Hungary of to-day found evidence of an evolution in the direction of democracy and republicanism which would reassure them on the question of her internal regime."

Charles had renounced all share in the government of Austria and Hungary respectively, but he had refrained from making a formal abdication. On March 27, 1921, he suddenly appeared in Hungary. At once the Allied representatives in Budapest together with the representatives of Czechoslovakia, Rumania and Yugoslavia protested to the Hungarian Government. On March 30, Dr. Benes instructed the Czechoslovak Minister to tell the Hungarian Government that Czechoslovakia would break off diplomatic relations with Hungary unless Charles left the country at once; and furthermore that there would be an economic blockade, and that, in the last resort, there would be a joint "military demonstration" by the Little Entente States. He followed this up by an ultimatum that these measures would be put into force without further warning if Charles had not left Hungary within four days. On the following day the Hungarian Government told the Czechoslovak Minister that all steps had been taken for effecting the departure of Charles, and that Hungary regarded the matter as an internal affair. This action was approved on April 1 at an extraordinary session of the Hungarian Parliament. In the meantime the Conference of Ambassadors had reaffirmed its declaration of February, 1920, and expressed the expectation that the Hungarian Government would take effective measures to suppress an attempt which could only bring disastrous consequences for Hungary. This message reached Budapest on April 4, and Charles immediately retired to Switzerland. The incident indicates the seriousness with which not only the Little Entente but also the Allies regarded any attempt at restoration in Hungary. Its most important effect was to hasten the conclusion of the definite defensive alliance conventions between Czechoslovakia and Rumania, and Yugoslavia and Rumania.

During the summer and fall of 1921 there were two meetings between the Hungarian Foreign Minister, the Presidents of Austria and Czechoslovakia and Dr. Benes, which attempted a *rapprochement*. Little progress was made, mainly because Charles, breaking his promise not to return to Hungary, suddenly arrived by airplane on October 20, 1921, in the Burgenland. The possession of this province was at that time in dispute between Austria and Hungary, and conditions there were disturbed. Charles was joined by several irregular armed bands which were attempting forcibly to prevent its transfer to Austria from Hungary in accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Trianon. The Budapest representatives of the Allied Powers and of the Little Entente protested to the Hungarian Government, demanding that Charles be immediately removed. Charles was already proceeding against Budapest. The Hungarian Government complied, sent troops against him, dispersed the rebels and captured Charles on October 24.

Meantime, Dr. Benes had announced that the presence of Charles in Hungary was a *casus belli*, and that Czechoslovakia was making preparations to mobilize and would take energetic measures against Hungary in concert with other members of the Little Entente. Mobilization was decreed in both Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia on October 23, and was actually begun on October 27 in Czechoslovakia.

Representations by the Little Entente to the Conference of Ambassadors in Paris resulted in a note to Budapest demanding the formal deposition of Charles and his arrest and removal from Hungary under conditions to be fixed by the Allies. The powers declined all responsibility regarding the intervention of the states bordering on Hungary or for the resulting consequences if the Hungarian Government failed to comply at once.

Dr. Benes, threatening military sanctions, demanded of Hungary that the entire Hapsburg dynasty be deprived of its rights to the Hungarian throne. He also demanded a written engagement promising strict execution of the Treaty of Trianon. At the same time he requested the Allies to allow the Little Entente states to be represented on a special sub-commission of the Hungarian Disarmament Commission, and asked indemnity for the cost of mo-

bilization. The Hungarian Government accepted the demand for the extradition of Charles, although it did not refer to his deposition or to the exclusion of the Hapsburg dynasty; and virtually appealed to the Allies for protection against the Little Entente. On November 1, Charles was removed from the scene, but the other demands, remaining unfulfilled, kept the situation still critical.

The Conference of Ambassadors informed Dr. Benes and his Yugoslav and Rumanian colleagues that the control of the Hungarian disarmament was its concern, although it would welcome the exchange of views on the subject. The Ambassadors stated further that since Hungary had put an end to the efforts of Charles, the demand for indemnity was not valid and that military intervention would be unjustifiable. Finally, they invited the Little Entente to demobilize.

The Allies, in another note, called upon Hungary immediately to proclaim the deposition of both Charles and the Hapsburg dynasty. Budapest complied with the request to abrogate the sovereign right of Charles, but passed an act which restored to the nation the right of proceeding to a free election of its ruler, thus retaining the monarchical form of government and making Hungary a monarchy with the kingship in abeyance. On Dr. Benes' pointing out that the law did not specifically forbid the possibility of the restoration of the Hapsburgs by way of an open election, the Ambassadors on November 5, through the Allied representatives at Budapest, directed the Hungarian National Assembly to make it quite clear by law that the Hapsburgs were permanently excluded from the throne of Hungary, free election or not. This accordingly was done, the law having added to it on November 10 a declaration making impossible a Hapsburg restoration on any pretext whatsoever, and providing against a candidate for the throne being selected till after consultation with the Conference of Ambassadors. Thus the crisis was definitely solved. Czechoslovakia demobilized.

The Little Entente, by its steady pressure on the Ambassadors, with that pressure unflinchingly emphasized by the mobilization of half a million men, had achieved its fundamental aim—the absolute liquidation of the Haps-

burg question. There had been no resort to actual force and diplomatic relations had not been broken off with Hungary. Nevertheless, the incident further embittered the atmosphere of central Europe and retarded rather than advanced the restoration of peaceful conditions.

With the diminishing of what has been termed the political vortex created by the recalcitrance of Hungary toward the Trianon Treaty and by the concern to safeguard the treaty which this Hungarian attitude had produced, the Little Entente became for the time less concerned with Hungary and began to show a tendency to engage in general European affairs. Although the three powers continued to hold periodic conferences, the need for concerted action for a time disappeared. Each tended to go its own way, while refraining from doing anything which might injure the interests of the other members. This slight loosening of bonds between the three allies was due partly to growing divergencies of interests which proved stronger than their common interests in keeping Hungary down; partly to the fact that Hungary was on the whole quieter and less intransigent during this period; and partly to the desire of France and Italy to enter into closer relations with the three states. Gradually the Little Entente countries were drawn into the orbit of the great powers, who, in the course of years, signed treaties with each of the three allies, pledging themselves to the maintenance of the *status quo* established by the peace treaties.

Actions of Budapest often aroused the Little Entente capitals after 1924. There was, for example, the famous franc forgery case at the end of 1925 and in 1926, when Hungary once more occasioned a formal declaration from the Little Entente. Charges had been made of the counterfeiting of huge amounts of French francs in Hungary for the purpose of financing extreme reactionary and anti-Semitic monarchist groups. Government officials were supposedly implicated, and arrests were made of persons in high stations. A parliamentary commission investigated the affair. The Little Entente was much perturbed. The counterfeiters were subsequently tried, some being acquitted and others receiving light sentences.

Again in the years 1927-1928 the fears of the Little Entente were reawakened. One of

the causes was the revival of agitation in favor of the *Anschluss*. Another reason for the renewed apprehension was the campaign instituted by Lord Rothermere, the publisher of the London *Daily Mail*, for the restoration to Hungary of a large part of the territory taken from her under the Treaty of Trianon. However, the affair that suddenly united and galvanized the Little Entente into action was the so-called St. Gotthard Incident. In January, 1928, five railway cars of arms marked "sewing-machine parts" were discovered at St. Gotthard, a frontier railway station between Austria and Hungary. Although the shipment was addressed to a Czech town, it was generally believed that its real destination was Hungary, which by the Treaty of Trianon was strictly forbidden to import arms, munitions and war material. The arms came from the Italian city of Verona, and many considered the incident revealed Italy's sympathy with the revisionist movement.

The Little Entente states, especially Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia, were greatly stirred over the affair. Since the control of the disarmament of Hungary had been removed from inter-allied agencies and entrusted to the League of Nations, the governments of the Little Entente appealed to the League Council to investigate the matter. The Council first requested the Hungarian Government to leave the cars intact, pending the arrival of a commission of experts to be sent to the spot. In spite of this request, however, the authorities proceeded with the destruction of the machine guns, and by the time the experts arrived nothing remained, save the debris. From the wreckage, the experts determined that all the parts necessary to compose complete machine gun units were not present. They also discovered that the debris weighed four tons less than the original shipment.

At the June meeting of the Council, a resolution was passed, accepting the findings of the commission and expressing regret that the Hungarian authorities, having been unable to find the shipper, had not followed the Council's instructions. Probably largely because of Italy's attitude, a discreet silence was observed as to the origin of the smuggled arms. Thus although Hungary had technically violated the provisions of the Treaty of Trianon, she was exonerated and the Little Entente received a

setback in this encounter against her foe.

With the passing of the years the Little Entente went through an interesting evolution. Its organic structure, which had been built simply on the foundations of bilateral treaties, was modified by virtue of an agreement of the members on May 21, 1929, that renewal of the alliance treaties should be made automatic at the end of each five-year period. Moreover, on the same day the three states signed the Tripartite Treaty for the peaceful settlement of all their disputes in accordance with the model treaty of arbitration and conciliation which the League of Nations had adopted in 1928.

The coming of the world depression inaugurated portentous difficulties for industry and agriculture in central and southeastern Europe, though political optimism, for a while, still prevailed. The advent of Adolph Hitler to power in Germany on January 30, 1933, served immediately to strengthen the bonds of union among Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia and Rumania against that menace. Partly as a consequence of the rise of Hitler, partly because of fears that France and Great Britain might be constrained to appease Germany and Italy by concessions at the expense of some small states, and also because there had been a long trend in that direction, the Little Entente, under the leadership of Dr. Benes and Dr. Nicholas Titulescu, of Rumania, was transformed virtually into a diplomatic federation by the signing of the Pact of Organization at Geneva on February 16, 1933.

The new instrument provided that the council of the Little Entente, comprising the foreign ministers of the three allied states, was to direct the foreign policy of the Entente and its unanimous approval was required for "every political treaty or unilateral act changing the present political situation of one of the States, as well as every economic agreement involving important political consequences." A secretariat of the permanent council of the Little Entente was also created, with a branch office at Geneva. It further established an economic council "for the progressive coordination of the economic interests of the States, whether among themselves or in their relations with other States." Thus not only were the economic relations of the three countries strength-

ened, but also the greatest emphasis was placed on the necessity of maintaining peace in all circumstances and of encouraging and confirming the movement towards the definite stabilization of central European relations.

With greater strength and unity, the Little Entente seemed about to enter into another period of work in central Europe. Early in 1933 the three states, together with Poland, protested bitterly and successfully against Mussolini's proposed Four-Power Pact, for they well understood the full implications of a grouping of Italy, Germany, France, and Great Britain, with its usurpation of the powers of the League of Nations and its antagonism against the rights of smaller nations. The members of the Little Entente were represented at the London Economic Conference in June-July, 1933, and on July 4 signed a non-aggression agreement with the Soviet Union. In the next year Czechoslovakia and Rumania entered into diplomatic relations with the Soviet Union, and Yugoslavia might have, had not the assassination of King Alexander intervened.

Aided and guided by Czechoslovakia, the influence of the Little Entente was extended into the Balkan region through the membership of Yugoslavia and Rumania, together with Greece and Turkey, in the Balkan Entente. This Balkan organization came into being on February 9, 1934, when the four above-mentioned nations signed at Athens the Balkan Pact, providing for concerted action against external aggression and for a measure of consolidation on foreign political issues. However, the hopes placed on the Balkan Entente did not mature. Albania was never asked to join on account of her subservience to Italy, and Bulgaria refused because she did not want to jeopardize her revisionist aims.

As the world moved through the perilous years of crisis after 1931, the member states of both the Little Entente and, after its foundation in 1934, the Balkan Entente worked together in the cause of organizing and preserving peace. Under Dr. Benes and Titulescu, especially, the Little Entente took the lead in urging action against Japan in the years 1931-1933. The smaller states, well knowing that their safety lay in the system of collective security, sought to strengthen the League of Nations. The two ententes stood together in

the threatening crisis which centered around the assassination of King Alexander of Yugoslavia in October, 1934. In 1935 there came a certain loosening of ties between France and central Europe, due to the alarm and indignation caused to the Little Entente by Pierre Laval's Franco-Italian agreement of January, 1935. In the Ethiopian conflict, precipitated by Fascist Italy's aggression in October, 1935, the Little Entente and the Balkan Entente marched firmly with the League of Nations, though the member states were well aware of the tremendous risks involved for them.

As the Ethiopian war drew to a close in the spring of 1936, Nazi Germany, in violation of the Versailles and Locarno treaties, on March 7, 1936, moved into the Rhineland. The remilitarization of the Rhineland might prove an effective barrier to any direct French assistance to Czechoslovakia and the Little Entente in the event of war. It might serve, in other words, to isolate central and southeastern Europe from France and Great Britain. Four days after the remilitarization, on March 11, a joint meeting of the two ententes was held in Geneva. Though no official communique was forthcoming, there were indications of support for France and the principle of collective security. Thanks to the failure of Great Britain and France to act in concert, however, Nazi Germany won its first major victory in the European struggle which had already begun.

The growing power and the menace of Nazi Germany proved a threat to both the Balkan and Little Ententes and tended to promote disunity among the member states, particularly when they witnessed the lack of solidarity in Anglo-French resistance to aggression. This failure on the part of Great Britain and France to present a strong united front against Hitler induced Yugoslavia and Rumania to follow a policy of counter-insurance. Francophile Titulescu, long Rumania's Minister of Foreign Affairs, was booted out in August, 1936. In September the Little Entente weakened the bonds of diplomatic solidarity by giving permission to each partner to negotiate individually with its neighbors. On January 24, 1937, the Yugoslavs and Bulgars promised never to make war upon each other again. This pulled Yugoslavia out of the Balkan Pact which had obligated Belgrade to protect Greece, Rumania

and Turkey against an unprovoked Bulgarian attack. The Yugoslav-Italian Treaty of March 25, 1937, provided for Belgrade's consultation with Rome—a provision contrary to the Franco-Yugoslav Treaty of 1927.

Nevertheless, at least formal unity still obtained within the circles of the Little Entente and, more especially, within the Balkan Entente. When the Czechoslovak crisis was forced on Europe by Hitler's desire to isolate and then destroy Czechoslovakia, the Little Entente and the Balkan Entente remained firm. The Balkan Entente, meeting at Salonica on July 31, 1938, moved toward an understanding with Bulgaria, which had pursued a correct policy toward the member states, by removing the military restrictions on that country. In return, Bulgaria reaffirmed her pacific intentions. At the meeting of the Council of the Little Entente on August 21,³ an approach was made to Hungary, though it did not bear much fruit. Preliminary agreements were reached; Magyar statesmen were making a deal with the Hitler government concerning their share of a mutilated Czechoslovakia—a part of Slovakia and Sub-Carpathian Ruthenia.

When the great crisis came in September, 1938, it is interesting to note that both Yugoslavia, thanks to popular pressure on behalf of Czechoslovakia, and Rumania, as members of the Little Entente, rallied to the support of the harassed Republic. They remained true to their obligations, and were ready to stand to arms, as long as they had any confidence in France and Great Britain. As early as September 24, it appears that Yugoslavia and Rumania warned Hungary that, in case of an attack of Hungary against Czechoslovakia, they would be obliged to fulfill their engagements as members of the Little Entente.

When Austria went beneath the Nazi heel, the keystone was knocked from the arch of

the Little Entente. The rape and dismemberment of Czechoslovakia, by the Munich "Accord" of September 29-30, through the active cooperation of Chamberlain, Daladier and Mussolini and also to the benefit of Poland and Hungary, caused the final collapse of this alliance.

The Little Entente had its imperfections. These were faults and weaknesses common to Europe as a whole. Unfortunately, the Little Entente was purely negative—designed only to prevent something—it was directed against another Danubian country and it crystallized the revisionist *status quo* split while producing no machinery to overcome it. Despite determined efforts, it was unable to organize an effective, inclusive political and economic collaboration in central Europe, embracing Austria and Hungary. Austria appeared willing to cooperate in 1937-1938, when Dr. Milan Hodza, the Czechoslovak premier, was working in that direction, but feudal Hungary refused collaboration as long as her political claims against Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia and Rumania were not adjusted according to her desires. However, the most fatal defect of the Little Entente and the thing which brought about its ultimate extinction was that it did not envisage or provide for the defense of the existing territorial situation against an unprovoked attack on the part of a great power.

In spite of its many shortcomings, the Little Entente was fairly successful in keeping Hungary and Bulgaria within the framework of the Paris peace treaties for well-nigh two decades. It, undoubtedly, made an excellent beginning and it constituted definite steps in the right direction. It looked forward to the federal idea, and worked, not merely on the political, but on the broad social, economic and cultural plane as well. It offered a hope of organization and association in the Danubian and Balkan region.

³ As it turned out this was the last meeting of the Little Entente.

A Course in Human Relations

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Beginning with the fall term of 1945-1946, the Murrell Dobbins Vocational Technical School inaugurated a new course of study in social studies, in addition to the two-year course in American history and social issues currently given. The course is entitled "Human Relations."

In the last few years, educators, social workers, psychologists, sociologists and others interested in human welfare have decried the fact that American secondary education—and for that matter higher education—has given insufficient attention to the need of preparing young people to assume the responsibilities of mature living, and particularly as it pertains to problems of preparation for marriage, and for the other varied human relations that involve direct human contacts. Actually this criticism of our secondary schools is not as bad as some critics suggest, when they cite the increasing rates of juvenile delinquency and divorce.

As far back as 1918, the "Cardinal Principles of Education" recognized the need of including *worthy home membership, citizenship and occupational adjustment* as objectives in secondary education. Many high school and vocational school curricula (and textbooks) attempted to meet these objectives by instituting courses dealing with such sociological concepts as the nature and origin of the family, the causes of divorce, divorce laws, and the role of the organized religion in our society. Unfortunately, as sometimes presented in the classroom, and as treated in many of the textbooks, these sociological data frequently lacked the warmth, simplicity, and naturalness of treatment to have any significant carry-over in the character and personality development of the students exposed to them.

Perhaps this criticism applies to more than just this phase of secondary school work. Dr. F. T. Spaulding, New York Commissioner of Education, expressed this view at the three-day

conference of scientists meeting at the Graduate College of Princeton University (September 23, 1946). He stated that present teaching methods "emphasizing logical classification of subject matter worked out by scholars for scholars are too specialized for the preliminary education and 'almost certainly repel many novices who have the making of scholars'."¹

Advocating teaching based on matters of direct interest and concern to the pupils, he declared that the present methods are to be blamed principally on teacher training and textbook content.²

It is a recognized fact that perhaps the principal difficulty encountered in education of youth is the factor of motivation. One of John Dewey's chief contributions to education was his plea to make education not preparation for life but life itself. Unfortunately, some phases of a child's schooling must be in the nature of preparation for future living. Motivation then becomes a problem of getting the pupil to project himself into the future, five, ten, fifteen years hence—to identify himself with a future goal so strongly that his tastes, interests and desires of the present become part of his projection into the future.

In all human beings, particularly in young people, the pleasure principle is an exceedingly strong motivating factor. It is, to a large extent, the most potent determinant of immediate interests. Thus, unless the student is mature enough to project himself into the future, his immediate interests are far removed from the subject matter of many of the secondary school courses offered to him. Instead of wanting to read about the origin of the family, or of the different divorce laws in our country, or of the organization of our industrial system, the average student would rather discuss his date of the evening before,

¹ *The Philadelphia Evening Bulletin*, September 23, 1946.

² *Ibid.*, September 23, 1946.

or read a comic book, or just "do nothing." Of course, it is part of the teacher's task to "motivate learning," to assist the pupil in projecting himself into the future, and to so teach that the pupil acquires an interest in his work. Since this is not always too successful a task, the teacher has to utilize other measures, disciplinary in nature, to "force" learning upon the pupil. Even this latter technique does not always meet with success. Education, consequently, often results in a contest between the skill of the teacher assisted by the organized education system of our compulsory education laws, and the skill of the pupil who resists being educated.

In view of all this, it is therefore worthwhile both to the teacher and the pupils when a field of study can be found that meets both a basic objective of education and at the same time coincides with the interests of the pupils. Such a field of study is the course in "Human Relations" now given by the writer of this paper. It is gratifying when other students, who have heard about the course from their fellow classmates, come and ask of the teacher whether they also could take it. It is rewarding when students, at the end of the class period, complain that the period has ended all too soon and ask rhetorically why can't the period run into the next one. It is satisfying when students who "never liked social studies" become keenly interested and even jot down in their notebooks names of books for collateral reading.

JUSTIFYING A COURSE IN HUMAN RELATIONS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

In a recent article in one of our metropolitan newspapers, it was reported that Senator Arthur Capper will "re-introduce his twenty-three year old uniform divorce bill." There is also an indication, the article reports, that there is "a movement to encourage larger families" through the use of a bonus system, as it now exists in such countries as Britain, Canada, and Soviet Russia."

Another newspaper article reports an address given by Dr. Evelyn Duvall, executive secretary of the National Conference on Family Relations. The title of the article is "Economics Versus Romance."³ In her address, as reported by the newspaper, she characterizes

the common illusion that "if you are really in love, all will go smoothly," as "the most vicious allegation ever promulgated." She scores also the mounting divorce rate, which is a natural outgrowth of the modern emancipation of woman and of war. However, she does not feel that the new role of womanhood need be a cause of divorce if proper orientation and preparation for marriage were made part of the training we give to young people.

Such articles as these in our newspapers and magazines, as well as the numerous "Dorothy Dix" and "ethical problem" types of columns in our papers, show an increasing interest and need by young people for wholesome, unemotional information pertaining to pre-marital and marital relationships. Furthermore, there is a general tendency to cynicism that is characteristic of many adolescents. This may be due to youth's impetuosity and his disappointments in the way we adults run the world. Frequently, this cynicism, spurred on by some of our motion picture portrayals of life, leads to a rejection on the part of youth, of the "sound advice" that we adults, with "more experience," attempt to give them. They see life and marriage either from the "romantic cult" angle or from the "cynicism" of the cocktail drinker and cigarette smoker.

The problems of marital adjustment, size of families, occupational adjustment, emotional stability, are all parts of the large problem having to do with fostering mature and healthy inter-relations between human beings. We have heard the criticism that our schools prepare our young people for jobs, for citizenship, for leisure-time activities and for almost everything (well or poorly—depending on what we expect of the schools) except for dealing with other people.

Ours is a changing world. The appearance of atomic power is perhaps not the most revolutionary change. If we shall be successful in harnessing atomic power for peaceful purposes, rather than for purposes of war, the discovery of how to unleash atomic energy will be merely just another source of power for our industrial way of life. The changes in our way of life, as they affect the individual's personal happiness, the changes which have come

³ *The Philadelphia Evening Bulletin*, October 15, 1946.

about as a result of the industrialization of our society and which concern human relations of a direct-contact nature are just as staggering as the discovery of atomic energy. We read in the papers of divorces increasing by leaps and bounds. We read of millions of women who cannot secure husbands. Statistics, as we know, are cold and lifeless. But if we translate statistics into human values, they become alive and very startling.

What will it mean to a woman who will not be able to obtain a husband because of a shortage of men? How will her personal relationships be affected as a result of this? Students have for the last several decades been given information about divorce and desertion rates. But how much have we been able to impress upon the mind of the learner what the personal consequences—the shattering of hopes, the break up of one's dreams, the need for beginning a new life—that faces the person whose only solution appears to be desertion, separation or divorce?

People read of famines in India, of earthquakes in South America, of millions wounded and killed in wars, and in accidents. Some may be moved—but the identification is much less than in a catastrophe that befalls someone close to them, such as their own child or parent, or even their next-door neighbor. That is why many courses that have dealt with marriage and divorce, juvenile delinquency—from a statistical and organizational viewpoint—fail to arouse the interest of pupils. Identification is weakened by distance and by mere statistics. The tragedies of unhappy married life, of failure in occupational adjustment, of frustration, of emotional instabilities, must be real and significant to the student if he is to benefit in his growth toward maturity. The joy of living, of being happily married, of rearing children, of being with other people, of being satisfied with one's work, of being well-adjusted in one's relations with other people, all constitute a major objective of education.

The period of adolescence—particularly in the senior year of high school and vocational school or in the beginning years of college—is admirably suited for such an education. The young man and woman at this age is interested in himself and in persons of the same

and opposite sex. It is at this time that his sexual instincts are awakened. He wants to learn all about love, about sex, about the problems of marriage. He is at the stage when he can project his interest five or ten years into the future. It is at this stage, therefore, that it is most suitable to discuss problems of courtship, problems of acceptable ways of satisfying his instinctual drives, of the factors that need to be considered in the selection of a mate, of the pitfalls in "over-romantic courtship." It is amazing how maturely boys and girls of seventeen and eighteen years of age approach these matters when presented in a mature yet simple manner—on their own level.

From the experience of the writer in this new course in "Human Relations" given to his day school students, as well as from his experiences in a similar course given to adults (only slightly older than his day school students) in evening classes, there seems to be no doubt that there is need for such a course in secondary schools. Whether this course will contribute much to fostering less frustration, greater emotional stability, happier and better adjusted marriage, is of course unpredictable. There are so many other factors involved in the individual's personal experiences and in our social life that are contributory. The course outline which follows is still in an experimental stage. As previously indicated, the student reactions thus far have been very favorable. If it appears, perhaps, too mature in some places, the experience of the writer has shown that the students can "take it."

HUMAN RELATIONS

(Course Outline in Social Studies for
Secondary Schools)

Major Objectives:

To enable the individual to attain an individually-and-socially-satisfying adjustment of his relationship with other people

Contributing Objectives:

1. A knowledge and understanding of the different forces that mold personality and character development
2. A knowledge and understanding of the different social institutions and of the role they play in human relations
3. To enable the individual to obtain a sound understanding and appreciation of

the role of the family and to better equip him to enter into marital relationship

4. The acquisition of attitudes of tolerance, fair play, and impartiality (and yet intelligently critical) to persons and issues which confront the individual throughout his lifetime
5. To develop the desire to participate fully, in line with one's capacities, in those phases of our social and political life, which influence the well being of all

I. Introduction—Nature of Human Relations.

II. Understanding Ourselves and Others—Our Biological Heritage. (Why We Behave Like Human Beings)

A. What We Know of Ourselves from the Study of the Theory of Evolution

1. Evidences in support of the theory of evolution
2. Critical evaluation of the theory of evolution

B. Our Biological Heritage

1. To what extent are our personalities the result of our biological make-up?
2. The role of heredity in character development
 - a. The nature of heredity—how it works
 - b. Natural selection and survival of the fittest
3. Our physiological make-up and the role it plays in human behavior
 - a. We know the world through our senses
 - b. The mysterious workings of our glandular system
 - c. Becoming acquainted with our nervous system
4. Our biological drives and urges
 - a. The role of instincts in behavior
 - b. The role of emotions in behavior
 - c. The role of the autonomic nervous system
 - d. Can we modify our instinctual drives?
 - e. Can we learn to control our emotions?
 - f. Human instinctual behavior contrasted with animal instinctual behavior—the mark of maturity and growth

III. Understanding Ourselves and Others—Our Social Heritage

A. The Role of Environment in Personality and Character Development

1. The limitations of physical environment upon social institutions

2. The complexity of our social environment

3. Understanding our social heritage and the role it plays in human inter-relations

4. Analysis of specific social institutions

- a. The home and the family
- b. The church and religion
- c. Education and the schools
- d. The immediate neighborhood
- e. Our larger communities—the city and the state

5. The role of our customs and mores

6. Other agencies that influence our thinking and opinions

- a. Agencies of communication—News-papers, radio, and motion pictures
- b. The different arts—literature, music, painting and sculpture

IV. Processes in Growth and Development of Personality

A. How We Mature

1. Psychological mechanism contributing to growth

- a. The process of identification
- b. The process of projection
- c. The nature of learning
 - The trial and error method
 - The conditioned response
 - Building and breaking habits

B. Adjusting Ourselves to Other People—Pre-Adolescence

1. Infant and childhood dependency
2. The role of childhood home environment
3. Pre-adolescent dependency
4. Adolescence—Reconciling biological maturity with social immaturity
 - Contrasting the biological drive with those of hunger and thirst
 - The need for developing socially acceptable patterns of behavior in fulfilling the needs of our drives

C. Post-Adolescent Adjustment

1. Occupational adjustment

- a. The need for recognizing one's responsibility to himself and to others
- b. The need for adequate occupational preparation
- c. The importance of acceptable person-

- ality and character traits in occupational success
- 2. Leisure time activities
- 3. Relationships with persons of the same and opposite sex
 - a. The nature of friendship
 - b. Acceptable post-adolescent relationships
- V. Adjustment in Marriage
 - A. Analysis of Current and Post-Marriage Practices
 - 1. The superiority of monogamous marriage to that of others
 - B. Preparation for Marriage and Family Life
 - 1. Selection of a mate
 - a. Early practices in courtship
 - b. Current practices in courtship
 - c. The dangers of over-romantic courtship
 - d. Factors to be considered in selecting a mate
 - Biological background
 - Racial background
 - Cultural (religious, social, and economic) status of persons
 - C. Nature and Function of Marriage and the Family
 - 1. Child rearing and character development of offspring
 - a. Type of family patterns
 - b. Knowledge of child psychology
 - 2. Affectional relationships
 - 3. Recreational functions
 - 4. Educational functions
 - 5. Economic functions
- D. Factors Leading to Marital Success or Marital Discord
 - 1. Financial and economic
 - 2. Personality factors—appearance, dress, mannerisms
 - 3. Relatives and friends
 - 4. Common or divergent interests
 - 5. Responsibility to children
- E. The Problems of Divorce and Separation
 - 1. Causes of divorce
 - 2. Effect on personality
 - a. Emotional concomitants
 - b. Effect on personal relationships
 - 3. Remedies
- F. The Changing Role of the Family
 - 1. Integrating and disintegrating forces
 - a. Changing industrial patterns
 - b. Greater mobility of population
 - c. Increasing economic independence of women
 - d. Economic insecurity
- VI. Keeping Mentally Healthy
 - A. Definition of Mental Health
 - B. Types of Mental Illness
 - 1. Organic
 - 2. Functional
 - C. Factors in Mental Illnesses—the Nature of Neuroses
 - 1. The role of our emotions on mental stability
 - 2. The role of our emotions on physical fitness
 - 3. Overcoming our fears and anxieties
 - D. Developing a Workable Philosophy of Life.

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

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FILMS

A descriptive folder on Encyclopaedia Britannica Films' "New Slide Films Series" film-strip developed from motion pictures, which gives an element of movement to the filmstrips, can be obtained. Two series for the elementary grades are available: one, on "Regional Geography: The United States," and the other on "Children of Many Lands." Write to Encyclo-

paedia Britannica Films, Inc., Dept. 41-B, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago 6, Illinois.

Popular Science Publishing Company is preparing a new series of Teach-O-Filmstrips on world history for senior high schools. These filmstrips will come in series of six, 40 frames each, black and white. Write for catalog: Audio-Visual Division, Popular Science Publishing Company, New York City.

Kits of Visual Teaching Aids are available through Foley and Edmunds, 480 Lexington Avenue, New York 17, N. Y., on the United States, South America, Austria and New Zealand. Each kit contains filmstrips, photographs, diascopes, and teachers' guides.

The Australian News and Information Bureau, 636 Fifth Avenue, New York City, has free information available on maps, filmstrips and films. Films and filmstrips are sold at a nominal fee.

"The Junior Citizen": An outstanding film on a vital theme: good citizenship in our democracy, the awareness of our schools of its importance, the fine role the schools are playing in its development. The film consists of four parts: "Sharing a Common Understanding," "Fitting into Our Economic Life," "Conserving our Natural Resources," "Conserving Our Human Resources." Threaded through the film unobtrusively, yet eloquently, is the heartening conviction that all races and creeds can live and work together, shoulder to shoulder, in an atmosphere of respect, friendship, and understanding. This film is of value for all social science classes. (2 reels, black & white, 16 mm., sound). Write to Gateway Productions, Inc., 49 Main Street, San Francisco, California.

"Community Developments": This 45-frame slidefilm strip, is designed to illustrate the growth and development of communities in clear, interesting pictures. Write to Air-Age Education Research, 80 East 42nd Street, New York 17, N. Y.

"Geography from the Air": This unique film, created from footage taken by the Army's Air Transport Command, provides social science teachers with interesting, informative material for instruction in global geography. Scenes from all over the world illustrate outstanding geographic elements. This one-reel, 16 mm. film, with sound, available now. For further details, write to Air-Age Education Research.

"Brotherhood of Man": This is a color film, 16 mm., based on the Public Affairs pamphlet, *Races of Mankind*. This film should prove to be of value in developing good inter-group understanding and relations. Write to Brandon Films, 160 Broadway, New York City.

"Of These Our People": This 16 mm. film (silent) is another film that depicts the principles of brotherhood so necessary for democ-

racy. Write to Horizon Films, 232 West 14th Street, New York 11, N. Y.

"How We Elect Our Representatives": This film explains the functional basis of our democracy, our election system. It is of special value to civic, government and social studies classes in junior and senior high schools. (1 reel, 16 mm., black and white). Write to Coronet Instructional Films, 65 East Water Street, Chicago 1, Illinois.

"U. S. Economic Map Slides": This consists of a set of 20 colored 2 x 2 map slides showing the distribution of the economic resources of the United States. The maps are based on the latest statistical information supplied by various government agencies. The titles of the individual slides are: Wheat, Corn, Cotton, Sugar, Potatoes, etc. A Teacher's guide containing explanatory material accompanies each set of slides. Write to Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st Street, New York 17, N. Y.

"Gracias, Amigos": This film discusses the contributions made by our southern republics to the winning of World War II by furnishing rubber, nitrates, quartz, sisal, tin, manganese, and other vital raw materials. It is a story of good neighborliness at its all-time best. (No. 1619, 20 min., 16 mm. black and white). Write to Bell and Howell Filmosound Library, 1801 Larchmont Avenue, Chicago 13, Illinois.

"Peoples of the Soviet Union": This film, photographed by American cameramen, pictures the many racial groups which make up the Soviet Union. It is believed to be the first film offered to schools, community forums and clubs. (33 min., black and white, 16 mm. sound). Write to International Film Foundation, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York City.

CHARTS AND TEACHING AIDS

Available free, a useful teaching aid *Pertinent Facts About Coal*. Write to Bituminous Coal Institute, 815 Southern Building, Washington 5, D. C.

Teachers' Manual for a study of railway transportation for social science classes in primary and intermediate grades. Contains pictures with stories from the early trains to modern trains. Write to Association of American Railroads, Washington, D. C.

Four Posters: "We Hold These Truths" are available from the Council Against Intolerance in America. Pronouncements of four great

Americans: George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln, and F. D. Roosevelt are woven into photographic montages to illustrate principles basic to American Unity. Write to 17 East 42nd Street, New York City.

India—Friendship Map. Gives not only geographic information, but data on raw materials, language, and currency. It is approximately 27" x 32", 1946; 50 cents. Write to Friendship Press, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York 10, N. Y.

This is Denmark: The People, their Work, and their Country. Consists of poster of pictures and graphs on Denmark. 1946. Free. Write to Danish Information Service, 15 Moore Street, New York 4, N. Y.

The United Nations for Peace and World Progress. This is a Department of State Publication, No. 2593. It is a poster outlining the relationship of each U.N. agency to the others and showing how the United Nations promotes international cooperation. 1946. Free. Department of State, Washington, D. C.

RADIO AND RECORDINGS

N.B.C. network presents in cooperation with the Department of Public Information of the United Nations, a series of programs pertaining to the United Nations. Program scripts

may be obtained by writing to Your United Nations, National Broadcasting Company, New York 20, N. Y.

The American Association for the United Nations, assisted by NBC's University of the Air, the National Education Association, and the United Nations Society in Canada are sponsoring a contest "The Teacher and the United Nations." The theme of the thesis is how teachers can promote the work and ideals of the United Nations. Teacher-training students proposing to enter the contest should write for entrance blanks to the American Association for the United Nations, 45 East 67 Street, New York 21, N. Y.

Radio reprints of broadcasts are available from the following:

1. The University of Chicago Round Table, Chicago 37, Illinois. Single copies 10 cents.
2. *America, United*, Ransdell, Inc., Washington 17, D. C. No charge.
3. *Our Foreign Policy*, Columbia University Press, Station J, Box 30, New York 27, N. Y. Single copies 10 cents.
4. *Your United Nations*, American Association for the United Nations, 45 East 65 Street, New York 21, N. Y.

News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

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A G.I. LOOKS AT THE NAZIS

The American occupation of Germany and Japan has an aspect which will concern the attention of educators and sociologists for some years to come. It is the opportunity which is being presented for the study of the effects of mass education when placed in direct contact with a rival system of training. In Germany, for instance, hundreds of thousands of G.I.'s educated in the democratic tradition and imbued, we fondly hope, with a passion for democracy as a result of our teaching, are living among a people whose background and more recent specific training have been the antithesis of democracy. What will be the out-

come of such a situation? The Germans have the weight of numbers, the Americans that of power and authority. Will the educational training of one have any marked effect on that of the other? It is a most interesting problem, and an equally important one, since the ultimate success of our occupation must rest on the triumph of the democratic way of thought.

The advantage in one way is with us, since the individual Germans remain in continuous contact with democratic teaching, while the army of occupation constantly changes its personnel. Yet, many American teachers must have wondered how effectively they have succeeded in inculcating their own pupils with a

genuine belief in democracy—a belief that would be sustained in the face of opposition and an alien type of thought.

To those who have so wondered, the letter quoted below is an interesting and heartening answer from one G.I. It was recently received by a teacher in whose class in problems of democracy the writer had been an undistinguished member two or three years ago. This is his letter:

Maybe you've forgotten me entirely by now, but I doubt it. I caused enough disturbance while I was in school to be well remembered.

I had a conversation today I thought would be interesting to you. In fact it turned into an argument rather than a discussion.

We have a fellow working in our office that has grown up under the influence of Hitler and his training program. I asked him if he thought Hitler was any good. "Yes, a very good man. He made Germany a great country." I said: "Sure, Hitler was good for Germany and everything would have been fine if he'd have stuck strictly to Germany. No, he had to go out and try and take over the whole world." "No, Hitler only took back what rightfully belonged to Germany."

The idea of the German people seems to be this: No matter where the city is located, if the majority of the population is German, it's a German city. So they took over Austria and the rest of the countries.

I then asked him why did the Germans attack Russia?

"Why? Because they were planning to attack us." He said "Russia took away much from us after the last war and we wanted it back. It was ours before the war."

I said: "Sure it was, but countries and boundaries change with the years. Only a few years ago there was no Germany."

He went way back in history to Frederick the Great. Luckily, I remembered about my history and went on. I told him France had once owned most of Europe, but she didn't try to take countries because they had once belonged to her. I still couldn't make any impression. Germans can be a very stupid and stubborn bunch of people when they want to.

I asked him if he thought we could ever make a democracy out of Germany. He said: "No, I don't think you'll stay here long enough to change our ideas."

I said: "Suppose we stay for fifty years?" He said: "Then I think we'll be a democracy." I said: "Why do we have to always convince you the hard way? If you make us stay for fifty years we will, because you've got to learn your lesson this time." I said: "Do most of the people feel the same as you do?" He said, "Yes, most of the young, in fact all but the old ones."

This has been taught to him and drilled into him as firmly as democracy has been taught to me. Will we be able to change his viewpoint? I doubt it. I know someone would have a hard time convincing me on Naziism. You can't force it on the Germans and they don't want it, so how can we build a better world? If someone had told me while I was in school that I'd have to answer questions that Germans asked about democracy, I'd have said they were crazy. But, regardless, here I am trying hard to open their eyes. I could ignore them, but they'd laugh and say: "He doesn't even understand his own government."

Maybe the occupation army should be made up of teachers. It's a hard job for a G.I.

Probably many other letters like this have been written home; if they have, they should form a first-rate antidote to the sense of failure that sometimes besets the social studies teacher who contemplates the current scene. Democracy will hold its own abroad if there are enough G.I.'s like the boy who wrote that letter.

INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION

The January issue of *Social Science* devoted about half its space to a series of articles on phases of intercultural education. The vital importance of the subject is stressed in the introductory article by Joseph S. Roucek of Hofstra College. He writes:

It has been becoming increasingly clear that the forces of bigotry and prejudice are more than ever at large, and that they have been returning to their favorite pastime of sinister agitation and subversive hate-mongering. Even among returned soldiers, we have evidence that their minds are not at all

clear as to the purpose for which World War II has been fought and that many have already been an easy prey to the type of racial theory and "Aryan" philosophy so assiduously cultivated and so ably propagandized by Dr. Goebbels and his devilishly clever associates. As a result, America is still a fertile field for the demagogue and charlatan, who makes it his specialty to set race against race, creed against creed, and class against class.

He goes on to say that we are being constantly attacked with "psychological sabotage" by the dead and living supporters of Hitler. The fact that members of all our minority groups made outstanding records in the war is already becoming a forgotten memory. It is the task of education to fight against the forces of disunity that seem to be growing stronger among us.

Feliks Gross of New York University contributes an article on "Uniformity and Pluralism," in which he shows how intolerance in history has been chiefly for the purpose of imposing uniformity within the state. Sometimes it has been for religious uniformity, as when the Catholic missionaries in Latin America sought to wipe out indigenous religious customs; sometimes it has been for the purpose of unifying the political power of the state, or of stimulating the economic welfare of home industries. In contrast to such policies Mr. Gross discusses cultural pluralism which is essential to the democratic approach to the problem of national minorities. Professor Floyd A. Cave of San Francisco State College writes an interesting article on the problems of minority conflicts in San Francisco, especially those relating to Negroes. Other articles are contributed by John I. Kolehmainen, Norman Humphrey, Arthur D. Wright and Willard Johnson. There is also a worthwhile summary of recent books on intercultural education.

THE VETERAN IN COLLEGE

The G.I. Bill of Rights has made possible one of the most important developments in educational history. It has removed the financial barrier to college training for hundreds of thousands of young Americans and has made higher education more democratic than was ever possible before. It is a movement which has caused tremendous changes in our estab-

lished patterns of education and created many problems; but at the same time it provides an opportunity to draw some important conclusions about mass education at the higher levels. Many persons were dubious about the ability of most G.I.'s to meet the pre-war college standards or to make the necessary re-adjustment to a scholarly life after their service experiences. We are now in a position to begin observing the actual facts. Horace E. Hamilton in *The Educational Forum* for January has made an interesting and valuable analysis of the results of the veterans' education program to date. He has assembled data from a large number of colleges; the facts indicate that the veterans are not only staying in college, but are doing work that is equal to or better than that of the non-veterans. Mr. Hamilton then undertakes to find reasons for these results. His first conclusion is that the veteran's non-school experience has given him perspective and the ability to accept difficulties with philosophical fortitude; he is less easily distracted from his goal by non-essentials than is the younger, less-experienced student.

In the second place, the veteran is more mature, both in years and in attitude. He is actually an adult, rather than an adolescent, and his reactions to life are more serious and realistic. In the third place, the veteran has learned appreciation through denial. He has been forced to go without the opportunities for self-expression, self-improvement, and the cultural niceties of life; he has learned that they are worth working for.

Mr. Hamilton has also found that the average veteran has acquired a sort of tolerance toward human nature, a "horse sense" that carries him over minor difficulties and obstacles. Most significant of all, he thinks, is an idealism which somehow grew out of the experiences and contacts made throughout the world. Veterans in some cases have become cynical and bitter, but most of those who have resumed their education have developed a faith and belief that there is something worthy in mankind, and they are anxious to find out what it is. In general, Mr. Hamilton concludes that the veterans' program is proving the value of maturity and a period of non-school experience as a prelude to higher educational training, and that by comparison with the veterans

most high school graduates show themselves intellectually and emotionally unready to get the most out of college.

THE PROBLEM OF TEACHING AMERICAN HISTORY

The problem of what should be taught in high school American history courses is becoming more and more a matter of real concern. Of course it has always been a source of differences of opinion. There have been those whose conviction was that our history should be taught in a detailed, factual manner, stressing political development and the traditional matters which tended to glorify American expansion and greatness. This conception was most widely popularized by the famous *New York Times* history test of four or five years ago. On the other hand are those who believed that history should be taught simply as a means of interpreting the present and that time should be spent only on those phases of the past which were needed to explain contemporary problems. Most textbooks in the past decade or so have attempted to steer some sort of a middle course between these two, and most schools have followed the same procedure.

But today the problem is becoming greater. It is no longer merely a matter of interpretation and approach; the teaching of American history is now a problem of comprehension. Teachers are plagued by the question of how to teach all they think should be taught in the time available; textbook authors and publishers are trying to find ways to avoid books that resemble unabridged dictionaries or run into two volumes. This dilemma of how to teach so much in so little time is the subject of an interesting article by Ralph Adams Brown in *The Clearing House* for January.

Mr. Brown believes that we are teaching enough American history, in spite of the *Times* or the New Jersey Legislature which ordained a two-year course in that state a short time ago. He says, "The solution lies not in teaching more American history . . . the trouble with American history teaching is that we teach too much and too quickly." The accumulation of material through the rapid pace of events today, and the recognition that historical values go far beyond the traditional limits of politics and economics make the task of thorough "coverage" in one or even two years an impossible one. Mr. Brown holds that the only

sound policy is to admit that fact and to eliminate enough material so that what is retained can be digested, understood and appreciated by the pupil.

The question of what to retain naturally becomes of paramount importance. The easiest and most deplorable procedure would be to water down all the range of American history that we have been trying to teach until only the peaks emerge and all the details are drowned out. The result might enable a class to pass the *Times* test, but there would certainly be neither real understanding nor appreciation of the American heritage. What is required is the selection of a few basic objectives and the formation of a history course built around these objectives. Those materials of history which do not directly contribute to the understanding of the chosen objectives must be omitted, and left to the independent reading and curiosity of the student in his later life.

Mr. Brown emphasizes that the selection of the desired objectives should be a matter for agreement at the local level, depending in considerable measure on local needs and the availability of necessary materials. Whatever objectives are selected, they must be clearly understood and the subject matter to be studied must be carefully defined. Limiting the scope of historical studies in this way will certainly breach the traditions to a considerable extent. Much will be included that has had little recognition in most American history texts; while much more that has always been thought of as the sort of thing "that every schoolboy knows" will be omitted. But it is without question a necessary procedure if we are to keep within the time limits usually allowed us in high schools and still give our teaching depth and meaning.

THE TEACHER SALARY QUESTION

So much has been written by so many people on the critical issue of teachers' salaries that one would think that little remained to be said that would not be sheer repetition. Yet an article by Joseph G. Higgins in the February number of *School Management* emphasizes a point that does not seem to have had its proper share of attention. Briefly, his point is that boards of education should take the initiative in studying salary schedules and proposing ad-

justments rather than to leave these matters to well-intentioned pressure groups of teachers or parents. The history of salary disputes in so many communities has followed the same pattern. The board offers the lowest salary schedule it thinks it can use and still obtain or retain teachers. It makes no move to improve this schedule or to offer cost-of-living bonuses until the teachers demand action. When the pressure becomes sufficiently strong, the board makes the smallest concession it can and then sits back to wait until the pressure builds up again. The result is a feeling of discontent on the part of the teachers, a lowering of morale, and a lack of confidence in the good judgment and educational interests of the board. The teachers grow to feel with reason that the primary concern of the board is to cut costs when it should be to provide the best educational system the community is able to support.

Mr. Higgins aptly points out that even in these days of industrial unrest, there are thousands of firms which have experienced no strikes or walkouts and have continued to operate steadily and at a profit. Generally these instances are due to the fact that "the employer has maintained confidence and morale by initiating salary policies designed to keep pace with the trends of the times in the matter of pay levels and related services to employees." In other words, they have recognized the fact that in times of rising prices and labor shortages it is good business to keep salary levels adjusted to these conditions without waiting to be driven to it. In the long run the employer will have to bow to the inexorable law of supply and demand anyway, and by seizing the initiative and setting the pace he can avoid a great deal of inefficiency, waste, unpleasantness and harmful publicity.

What is true of industry is in this regard equally true of schools. A board of education which will not wait until public or professional pressure compels it to adjust salaries can create a tremendous amount of good will. It may even save money, for a teaching staff which knows that its board is alert to economic problems and is willing to take the lead in recognizing teacher needs is likely to be content with less than is a staff that feels it must fight for every cent it gets. In too many communities the most

active "taxpayers' protective association" is the board of education; it is like an occupational disease. Board members seem to feel that the real measure of their achievement is not the quality of the educational system or the teaching staff, but the tax rate.

As Mr. Higgins also indicates, boards of education should be realistic enough to see that the constantly diminishing number of good high school graduates preparing for teaching is building up a future problem for them to face. They may fight a more or less successful rearguard action with the teachers now in service, meeting each demand as it comes on the best terms they can; but they are being completely defeated by the army of young people who make no demands on them because they simply refuse to consider being teachers. Their pressure is a negative one, that will only be felt as the shortage of capable and enthusiastic teachers increases. These potentially good teachers do not send salary committees to the boards; they simply ignore them and train to be secretaries or draftsmen or nurses or chemists.

The only way that boards of education can meet these silent demands is by taking the initiative themselves in salary matters and becoming leaders instead of followers in dealing with a problem which should be among their first responsibilities. If the public, led by their boards of education, will make the teaching profession attractive enough, it will get its rightful share of each new generation's best. But the day has gone when young men and women of character and ability will seek a career that offers neither prestige nor security, and which in addition requires its members to fight for each meagre reward. It is to be hoped sincerely that many school board members will read Mr. Higgins' message with profit.

NOTES

School Life for February had an excellent summary of important legislation pertaining to education that was enacted by the several states which held regular sessions during 1946. It also printed the revised standards for accrediting secondary schools which were adopted last November by the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Another feature in this valuable issue was an analysis of three bills dealing with federal aid

to education which were introduced in the 79th Congress and will probably be considered by the 80th Congress. The summary of the bills is accompanied by an evaluation in terms of the policy statements adopted by the National Council of Chief State School Officers.

The University of Oxford and the University of Birmingham have announced summer sessions to be held from July 2 to August 13. They are primarily intended for American and other overseas graduate students. The Oxford session centers around the topic: "European Civilization in the Twentieth Century," while the session at Birmingham will deal with the subject of English literature from 1500 to 1640.

Princeton University has announced the beginning of a systematic study of "residential university life, including both instructional programs and extra-curricular activities, to determine, as far as may prove possible, their results measured by the intellectual, moral and physical development of the students." President Dodds has pointed out that such an analysis has long been needed in the field of higher education in order to discover the facts necessary for the intelligent consideration of problems of policy. It is estimated that the study may take five years. It will be financed by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York.

The January number of *International Con-*

ciliation contained full summaries of the Report of the United States Education Mission to Japan and the Recommendations of the United States Education Mission to Germany. They are preceded by an explanatory and analytical article by George F. Zook, which is eminently well worth reading. The tone of both reports is optimistic, though they recognize that the task of reforming the German and Japanese educational systems will be a long and difficult one.

We are generally familiar with the kinds and varieties of "stereotypes" held by white persons toward Negroes and other minority groups. We may not have stopped to wonder what stereotypes Negroes may have about whites, Jews, Japanese, Germans, or themselves. This is the subject of an interesting study conducted at Southern University, the state university for Negroes in Louisiana, and reported by James A. Bayton and Ethel F. Byoune in the Winter number of *The Journal of Negro Education*.

Social Action, the monthly periodical of the Council for Social Action of the Congregational Christian Churches, devotes each issue to consideration of a single current problem. The February issue dealt with "Problems of German Reconstruction" and gave a particularly good discussion of some of the factors which make the reorganization of Germany difficult.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by IRA KREIDER

Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

The Lost Americans. By Frank C. Hibben. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1946. Pp. ix, 196. \$2.50.

Dr. Hibben, who is professor of anthropology at the University of New Mexico, in this small volume attempts to tell what is known today about the first Americans, whom he terms the "lost Americans." Not much is really known about them, but, until two decades ago, there was scarcely an intimation that they had ever existed. These progenitors, or precursors, of the American Indian were indeed lost to history.

Conjectures as to the origin of the American Indian have not been lacking, however. These conjectures have tended to be alike in ascribing a somewhat recent period for this origin, when, as a matter of fact, the weight of evidence now indicates that the very earliest settlers came to our continent long before the establishment of the great empires in the valleys of the Nile and Euphrates.

The very name by which the American aboriginal is misnamed is a reminder of one of these conjectures, that of Columbus and his companions, to the effect that the newly-discovered

folk were men of India. And despite the ease with which a person, even a little skilled in the recognition of racial characteristics, can distinguish between a member of the so-called Red race and a Semite, a fairly popular myth has it that our continent was first peopled by certain "lost tribes of Israel." Aside from the belief in a special act of creation, other well-known hypotheses having to do with the first appearance of man in America are those which attribute a colonizing role to the ancient Egyptians, to the inhabitants of fabled Atlantis, and to the dwellers on the legendary Pacific continent of Mu.

While odds and ends of humanity may have reached our shores from other localities in pre-Columbian days, the findings of archeologists suggest Northeastern Asia as the ancestral home of the American Indian.

According to Dr. Hibben, the first clue to the fascinating story of ancient man in America was the discovery in 1926, near Folsom, New Mexico, of hand-hewn flint points with peculiar markings among the fossilized bones of a kind of bison now long extinct. Further investigations have revealed similar points in such places as Alaska, Canada east of the Rockies, Wyoming, Eastern Colorado, Texas, and, especially, at Clovis in Eastern New Mexico. Although not a single bone of this ancient man has been found, his existence has been postulated from his artifacts and he has been dubbed "Folsom man."

It is reasonably certain that Folsom man entered our continent from the Northwest 10,000 or more years ago, and that he encountered the giant wolf, the mammoth, and the saber-toothed tiger.

For a time, Folsom man was considered the earliest type of human being in America. In 1936, however, traces of a still earlier man were found just east of Albuquerque, New Mexico, in a cave of the Sandia mountains. "Sandia man" is thought to have been living in America all of 25,000 years ago.

The author reaches this conclusion:

The Sandia and the Folsom men represent two waves of human migration into the New World from Northeastern Asia. . . . Undoubtedly, other later tricklings of human beings made their way over from Asia by the same route as had the Sandia and Fol-

som men. We have already shown how complex the modern Indian is. The earliest Europeans [to reach our shores] were struck by the multiplicity of languages, customs, and physical types among the American red men. Sandia and Folsom men and women were the true ancestors of the American Indians. Later movements of hunters from the Asiatic motherland, coming . . . when changes had taken place in Asia, added new complexities and differences in their turn. (p. 187)

Of the Sandia and Folsom men, Dr. Hibben writes that it seems ". . . we should have found one human skull or some skeletal part that we could definitely attribute to these people. It is as exasperating as it is mysterious that so far this has been denied us." (p. 186)

But Dr. Hibben has not completed his investigations. He plans to go to Siberia as a member of a scientific expedition. "There," he informs his readers, ". . . we will follow the courses of the rivers that cut down through the ancient Pleistocene levels. There, I hope, we will find the earliest Americans themselves when they were still Asiatics. The story must be there." (p. 196)

The book is interesting and authoritative. Every college and high-school library should have a copy.

J. F. SANTEE.

Oregon College of Education
Monmouth, Oregon

Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Grades.

By Edgar Bruce Wesley and Mary A. Adams. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1946. Pp. 362. \$2.75.

This book deals specifically with the teaching of social studies in the elementary school. It emphasizes that the development and improvement of the elementary school through the years has brought us to the point of recognizing the importance of the interests, needs, development, and limitations of boys and girls as a basis of organization and procedure in the school. In this point of view it gives encouragement to the idea that in the elementary school the social studies should be a synthesis of the various subjects which might be recognized as "sciences" on higher levels. That is, boys and girls, rather than subject matter, pro-

vide a point of departure.

The volume elevates the teacher to a position of peculiar importance in the social studies program and advocates that the teacher's qualifications and training should be in keeping with this importance. In his relationship to pupils it is important that the teacher understand the social nature and development of children. The teacher should assume such a role in maximum personality development that learning will be characterized by interest, purpose, meaning, fullness, graded difficulty, sense of freedom, and awareness of time and place.

In the matter of objectives, it is pointed out that social analysis plays an important part. This is especially true in a democracy where it is incumbent upon members of society to survey progress and locate problems needing solution. It is important to reconcile the human objectives of the individual and the social objectives of the nation. In the determination of objectives, citizens, teachers and pupils all have a part to play.

Recognition is given to the fact that the curriculum in the social studies has been made by educators, social scientists, and classroom teachers. With the encouragement of these other groups, teachers are gradually assuming a greater role in making the curriculum. The teacher faces a real challenge here in producing results worthy of this recognition which he has won as a curriculum maker. A chapter is devoted to each of the following problems in curriculum making: selecting materials, organizing materials for instruction, developing experience units, and adjusting the program to the pupils. An extensive treatment is given to the unit plan as a method of organizing the social studies for teaching. Specimen programs are given to illustrate different practices in the organization of the social studies.

One section of the book deals with resources and equipment. After reviewing the place and function of the traditionally recognized literary sources, a chapter each is devoted to audio-visual materials and community materials. In each instance the scope of these materials is given with many suggestions as to sources of materials.

Under the caption "Basic Procedures in the Social Studies," attention is directed to the importance of developing reading and study

skills, developing social concepts, and teaching current events. A chapter on developing social concepts will be of interest to many social studies teachers as clarification on this point is urgently needed for careful work and critical thinking on the social studies curriculum. Also attention is given to developing concepts of time and chronology and to the development of locational and geographic concepts.

A section on evaluation, although brief as it needs must be in a volume of this type, touches on the fundamental principles of evaluating results in social studies instruction.

The book gives an overview of current problems and practices of teaching the social studies in the elementary school. It is a well-written treatise based on fundamental educational principles. It is conservatively progressive in point of view and outlook. It will be found to be of value for many social studies teachers who are looking for an orientation to present problems of organization of content and techniques of teaching.

M. L. GOETTING.

Professor of Education
Baylor University
Waco, Texas

Can Science Save Us? By George A. Lundberg.

New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1947. Pp. 122. Paper cover. \$1.00.

The author, a distinguished sociologist, makes a plea for the use of the scientific method in trying to arrive at the solution of our social problems. He points out that we have made little progress in looking to science for solutions of problems of human relations. One reason for the slow advancement is that most people feel that they already know the answers to these problems. Our knowledge must be constantly tested and replenished if education is to help to solve our social problems. Social idealism without scientific criteria as to possibilities and cost may be a liability to society. We live in a day of much confused and contradictory thinking on human relations.

Professor Lundberg argues that experimentation in the social sciences is possible and that the social structure can be studied objectively as easily as the physical universe. It is the business of social scientists to predict what is likely to happen socially under stated condi-

tions. In this respect, he says, "social scientists are today merely chipping flint in the Stone Age of their science. . . ."

The author believes that the physical and social sciences will be the accepted point of reference on which the validity of all knowledge is based for some centuries to come. Thus far, however, there has been little real research into the basic nature of human relations. We have put our confidence in common sense, good will, eloquent leaders, and pious hopes for the management of human relations. Unless we develop the social sciences, the development of the physical sciences may destroy us.

No conflict between science and the arts is seen. Literature and the arts can be most valuable to science just as they profit by advance in science. Nor will the advance of the social sciences have any adverse effect on any religious belief. On this issue the author says, "I can predict the will and the choices of men by exactly the same techniques I use to predict other natural phenomena. The same may be said about God. He is clearly a being with remarkably and demonstrably regular habits." As to the place of history in our educational system, he believes that it will continue as a separate discipline, a necessary part of the respective social sciences.

Professor Lundberg's immediate interest is probably in graduate school research in the problems of human relations. Yet his point of view may well be pondered by teachers in all stages of our educational system.

Social Effects of Aviation. By William Fielding Ogburn, with the assistance of Jean L. Adams and S. C. Gilfillan. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1946. Pp. 755. Illustrated. \$5.00.

Forecasting, scientific or otherwise, holds fascination for nearly everyone, and is attempted to a certain extent, by anyone who ever makes a guess about the future. These guesses may range all the way from wishful thinking to the mathematical calculations of astronomers. At the present time, prediction in the field of social and human affairs lies somewhere between the two extremes. It is brought closer to the goal of scientific accuracy by efforts such as William F. Ogburn has made with respect to the effects of aviation in the future.

The introductory section of "Social Effects of Aviation" presents an interesting explanation of the author's methods of adapting scientific methods to predicting from arrays of various types of data. The procedures are not always clear to one not familiar with the techniques involved. The fact that he is in no way trying to fool himself or others is made plain when he states, ". . . our problem in studying aviation is not to be extremely exact, but rather to be as helpful as we can in trying to figure out the future of aviation and how it is likely to change our civilization. We must act in practical life before all the evidence is in or before a proof is rendered."

There are two more sections in the book entitled "Uses" and "Social Effects" respectively. These two sections contain so much factual material in the form of figures, charts, and tables, that they alone give the book considerable value as a reference. The upward swing of all the trend curves shown is startling. It is hard to remember that the landing speed of many planes today is well above the top speed of most of the military planes of World War I. The chapters dealing with the effect of aviation on manufacturing, ocean shipping, railroads, and marketing contain many valuable statistics as well as indicating trends and effects. The statistics given for the effect of aviation on the death rate seem rather meager since they do not mention Hiroshima or Nagasaki although the destruction of these cities is mentioned in connection with the effect of the atomic bomb on city planning and on small nations.

At the present, air safety looms large in the public mind. This is probably due to the fact that international air travel has developed to the point where an accident in some remote part of the world is as newsworthy as one on a short domestic route. Furthermore, the number of people involved in a single accident is much greater because of the increased size of planes. The airlines are undoubtedly feeling the effect of the unfavorable situation. There are several bright rays of hope already shining and many of these lend support to faith in the predictions found in the book.

Take for example the following statement: "Perhaps the most difficult problem to solve is that of reducing pilot error, but signals and other aids will be developed." (p. 98) A recent

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New York Times article states that a "block" signal system, based on a wartime radar identification device, is being developed by American Airlines and the General Railway Signal Company and will soon be tested in actual operation.

In the index, one full column is devoted to the helicopter and there is indeed not only a wealth of material on its technology, but also some reference to it in nearly every chapter. It is of course a natural basis for predictions. Considering the fact that it is scarcely more developed as a flying machine of its type than the pre-World War I airplanes were, the predictions concerning its social effects are well within reasonable bounds.

Some reorganization of the book might have avoided some of the repetition that is apparent. It also would have served to insure a better chronology and perhaps emphasized the amazing growth of aviation even more. On the other hand, the present arrangement is probably best suited to the purposes of the book since it tends to place the emphasis on

the effects of aviation rather than on aviation itself.

Social Effects of Aviation is an effective book both as a reference for studying the development of aviation and as a landmark in the progress of the science of prediction in the realm of social and human affairs.

ALEXANDER T. MACNUTT.

Hempstead, New York

Economic Geography of Canada. By A. W. Currie. Toronto, Canada: The Macmillan Company of Canada Limited, 1945. Pp. xiv, 455.

Dr. Currie of the University of British Columbia is the author of this up-to-date book on Canada. This pioneer study of our northern neighbor was to be the work of a geologist and an economist, but the former died and the latter assumed the whole responsibility.

The book is primarily for college use. The text is a fine compilation of recent data. The writer has been very careful to give credit for data and ideas, so nearly every page contains

a group of footnotes. Many will be surprised that so much has been written about Canada, both at home and in the United States.

The publication consists of a preface, an introduction, and nine chapters. The introduction briefly clarifies present-day geographic philosophy and the philosophy used in the volume. The nine chapters of the text are: Canada as a Whole, Acadian-Appalachian Region, St. Lawrence Lowlands, Prairie Region, The Cordillera Region, The Canadian Shield, The Mackenzie Valley and Hudson Bay Lowlands, The Tundra, and Newfoundland and Labrador. Each region is introduced by a general description of its location, then a study of topography, geology, climate, agriculture, mining, forestry, hydro-electric power, fishing, recreation, or others that may be of importance to a particular region. The geographic regions correspond to the physiographic regions of Canada with the exception of several minor deviations. Detailed analysis is made of agriculture and mining practices, processes, limitations, problems, etc. in every region where important.

The book lacks any good maps. Those used are reproduced from other publications. The inclusion of province and smaller political boundaries on several dot maps does not add to clarity. The author has referred to counties and small settlements in the reading material, but no maps are available to locate them. Some factual data is incorrect, but for a pioneer work on an area larger than the United States, Dr. Currie has produced a fine work.

LEREOY O. MYERS.

Bowling Green State University
Bowling Green, Ohio

Congress at the Crossroads. By George B. Gal-
loway. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell
Company, 1946. Pp. 374. \$3.50.

The author, appointed staff director of the Joint Committee on the Organization of Congress, created in 1945, worked continuously with the committee. Previous to this he had a long experience in planning both in industry and government. With this background he is well fitted to make an analysis of the role of Congress, its defects, and suggested remedies.

The framers of our government in 1787 apparently intended to make Congress the main

part of the government. Since 1787 the change from an agricultural to industrial economy, the vast increase in population and area, and expanded international participation have brought a changed government. Among the most manifest of these trends has been the greater power of the presidency. Many executive departments and agencies along with several hundred committees, commissions, and boards have sprung up. Congress, in the meantime, with responsibilities much greater, is operating with outmoded machinery and methods.

Meanwhile the prestige of the Congressman, overworked, underpaid, and unfairly criticized, has fallen from its former high estate. "The conscientious Congressman is a plural personality. If he takes his job seriously, and most of them do, he is at once a national lawmaker, a watchdog of the Treasury, an errand boy and counsel for his constituents, a partner in foreign policy, and a keeper of the legislative household." (p. 57)

The joint committee formed early in 1945 was created to study the weaknesses of Congress and to recommend reforms in its internal organization and operation. The report of this committee, headed by Senator Robert M. La-Follette, Jr. and Representative Mike Monroney is taken by the author as the occasion for a new examination of the place of Congress in our system of government.

The book includes a chapter on the functions of Congress. Another considers the congressmen, themselves—their qualifications and characteristics. One of the greatest problems is the enormous work load of congressmen. Suggestions for the curtailment of the business of Congress are given. Congressional machinery, the committee system, the party caucus and committees are explained quite clearly. The steps in making a law are surveyed and suggestions for improving committee operation are offered. An improved liaison between the legislative and executive branches of the national government is shown to be one of the greatest needs. Ranking with this is the question of a congressman's responsibility to represent his own district and at the same time give due consideration to the interests of the whole nation. Then, too, he must determine his proper relations with pressure groups.

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The general plan of each chapter is to explain the workings of Congress, to point out weaknesses, and then offer corrective remedies. The material is interesting and the style is clear. The book will be helpful to classes in secondary school or college.

The Atomic Bomb. Compiled by Julia E. Johnsen. New York: the H. W. Wilson Company, 1946. Pp. 335. \$1.25.

The book is a Reference Shelf compilation that presents leading opinion on both sides of proposed solutions to problems relative to atomic energy. Probably of greatest interest to forum and discussion groups is the third of the book devoted to control of the production of atomic energy of which the bomb is an incidental, but deadly factor. It contains Baruch's views as expressed last June to the United Nations Atomic Energy Commission. Gromyko speaks for the Russians and Wallace states his position. Other opinions are those of James T. Shotwell, Dean Acheson, and Ely Culbertson. An article, "The Veto Power Pro and Con," is reprinted from *World Report* of last July.

Chapter headings in other parts of the book are: "History and Development," "Social and Other Implications," and "Peacetime Benefits." An article, "The Distribution of Uranium in Nature," reveals that this element, the only feasible source of atomic energy at present, is a thousand times more prevalent than gold. However, before the war when uranium was mined solely for its radium content, only two deposits, Belgian Congo and Canada, were able to compete in the world's market. Those interested in chemistry will find a table of atomic weights and a seven-page atomic science vocabulary.

In the section headed "Peacetime Benefits," Arthur H. Compton says that an atomic power plant could be put in operation within a year if there were sufficient demand. The Atomic Scientists of Chicago suggest a number of uses that may be developed within the next ten years.

A 40-page bibliography offers a wide selection of material for further reading. Much that is available in school libraries is listed.

The book's greatest value is in immediate use.

John of America. By Loring MacKaye. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1947. Pp. 245. \$2.50.

This is good historical fiction for early teenagers. The settings of witchcraft in Cromwell's England and of indenture in Virginia colony have not been over-used.

John Barebody, found as a baby on Mother Margaret's doorstep and Judy, the squire's daughter, a prankster, put a cow on a neighbor's roof the night before the squire's family joined the Cavalier exodus to Virginia. A cripple, warped mentally and physically, concocted witchcraft charges against Mother Margaret. Following Mother Margaret's death, John left the English village, steeped in ignorance and superstition for Virginia, the land of freedom and opportunity. Passage in the servant's quarters in the little boat was harrowing.

In Virginia, John was bound to a young farmer and his wife, both once indentured servants, proud and ambitious in their new station. In the new land John Washington, whose acquaintance John had made on the ship, maintained a friendly interest in him. But the shadow of a certain Sir James Marr kept moving across John's path. The last time it fell, Sir James brought John to court charged with being a wizard. The trial brought startling revelations about the identity of John, and revealed the love of Judy, now in Virginia and a spectator in the courtroom.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Keep Our Press Free. By Robert E. Cushman. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 123. New York: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1946. Illustrated. Pp. 32. 10 cents.

The American press is not absolutely free, being limited by certain safeguards necessary for the public security—wartime censorship, and laws against sedition, obscene literature, libel, and contempt.

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restrictive clauses slipped into a law "while nobody seemed to be looking," and by private threats to the independence of the press resulting from the fact that the publishing of newspapers and periodicals in the United States has become very big business.

In the last analysis, only an alert public opinion can prevent the restriction of the freedom of the press. In other words, the press can be kept free only in so far as the individual citizen accepts his responsibility for keeping it so.

Gibbon. By A. Hamilton Thompson. London: The Historical Association, 1946. Pp. 16. One shilling.

A warm admirer of Gibbon, the author has written this tribute of his appreciation. He holds that Gibbon was the first Englishman who imparted a supremely literary quality to historical narrative. Gibbon should be read as an objectively accurate historian of events, who combines style with the imagination of a great painter. It is admitted that as a historian of thought and culture, Gibbon suffered from remarkable limitations. In erroneously regarding the decline of the Eastern Empire as continuous and in his lack of sympathy with life outside its borders, he reflected the temper of his age and his own cold and egotistic personality.

The author recommends the use of the learned Dr. Bury's edition of Gibbon, which contains much material published since Gibbon's day.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Your Community: Its Provision for Health, Education, Safety, and Welfare. By Joanna C. Colcord. Revised by Donald S. Howard. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1947. Pp. 263. \$1.50.

A revision of a book used by schools and civic organizations as a basis for community surveys.

Action for Unity. By Goodwin Watson. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947. Pp. xi, 163. \$2.00.

A survey of what America is doing to push back racial and religious hates and prejudices. *The First Freedom.* By Morris L. Ernst. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946. Pp. xiv, 316. \$3.00.

The book discloses the trend toward monopoly in the controls and practices of press, radio, and movies and discusses the means of counteracting monopoly trends.

Latin America: Past and Present. By Russell H. Fitzgibbon and Flaud C. Wooton. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1946. Pp. vii, 469. \$2.20.

A high school textbook presenting the historical background and a survey of the political, economic, and cultural life in Latin America today.

Discovery of Europe: The Story of American Experience in the Old World. Edited by Philip Rahv. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1947. Pp. xix, 743. \$5.00.

An anthology of the comments on Europe by American authors who have visited Europe in the period from 1727 to 1939.

Soldiers' Album. Compiled by Colonel R. Ernest Dupuy and Lt. Colonel Herbert L. Bregstein. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1946. Pp. 173. \$5.00.

A pictorial story of World War II operations in western Europe.

The Sociology of Rural Life. By T. Lynn Smith. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947. Pp. xvi, 634. \$4.00.

A college textbook revised edition.

America: Its History and People. By Harold U. Faulkner and Tyler Kepner. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947. Pp. xvi, 949. \$2.88.

Revised edition of a secondary school history textbook.

Europe in Modern Times. By Warren O. Ault. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1946. Pp. xvi, 859. \$5.00.

A college textbook of European history from the end of the Middle Ages through the Second World War and the First Assembly of UNO.